Organisational Commitment and Job satisfaction in higher educational institutions: the Kenyan case

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ABSTRACT

Research on organisational commitment has gained momentum over the last two decades because of its association with positive work practices. As organisations undertake restructuring measures to maintain a leaner workforce, employee commitment to the organisation has now become more critical than ever. The main objectives of this research are: (a) to establish whether Meyer and Allen's multidimensional organisational commitment is applicable to a Kenyan setting; (b) to determine whether there are any sector (i.e. public and private) and occupational group (i.e. academic and administrative) differences in the levels organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions; and (c) to examine the extent to which demographic characteristics, professional commitment, job and role-related factors, and HRM practices influenced organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among employees in public and private universities.

This study was motivated by the state of Kenyan universities, particularly public universities as centres of excellence which are responsible for the development of human resources required for national development. Over the last two decades, public universities have been facing a myriad of problems which have affected their ability to motivate and retain their employees. This has been as a result of the general state of economic decline the country has been experiencing since the late 1980s. Consequently, facilities are rundown, students' unrest on the increase while employees are dissatisfied because of various monetary and non-monetary factors resulting in high turnover rates among academics while those who have remained are actively involved in moonlighting activities to supplement their income. The declining conditions in public universities have pushed private universities from the periphery to the forefront. Although, they offer market-oriented courses, their dependence on tuition fees as their main source of funding has made them unaffordable to ordinary Kenyans, thus raising concerns about equity in these institutions.

The data for this study was collected using questionnaires from 829 academic and 785 administrative employees from three public and three private universities, with a response rate of 54% (446 academic employees) and 62% (486 administrative employees) after data screening. The data was analysed using statistical package (SPSS). In addition, semi-structured interviews were conducted from 15 academic and administrative employees with the aim of validating the data collected from the questionnaires.

The findings indicated that Meyer and Allen's multidimensional organisational commitment was applicable in the Kenyan context. Secondly, the independent variables (i.e. personal characteristics, job and role-related factors, professional commitment and HR practices) were stronger predictors of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions for academics than for the administrative employees. Thirdly, employees from private universities were more committed to their universities and satisfied with their jobs than employees from public universities. Finally, age, education, professional commitment, role overload, supervisory support, job security, promotional opportunities, distributive justice and participation in decision making were the most important predictors of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among employees in Kenyan universities.

These results are significant for theory, policy and practice. In light of the applicability of the multidimensional organisational commitment to the Kenyan context, university managers should try to understand and establish work-related practices which are likely to enhance the most ‘desirable’ component of commitment.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my late mother, Lois Cherono who never lived to see the fruits of her labour; to my husband, Festus who has been my pillar during this journey; and to my children Brian and Cynthia whose young lives have been disrupted during this journey.

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ABBREVIATIONS

OCQ -	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire
ACS -	Affective Commitment Scale
CCS -	Continuance Commitment Scale
NCS -	Normative Commitment Scale
CC: HPS -	Continuance commitment (High personal sacrifice)
CC: LALT -	Continuance commitment (Low perceived alternatives)
CHE -	Commission for Higher Education
DPM -	Directorate of Personnel Management
HELB -	Higher Education Loans Board
FILMS –	Firms Internal Labour Markets
SAPS –	Structural Adjustment Programmes
GDP -	Gross Domestic Product
WENR -	World Education News and Reviews
IMF -	International Monetary Fund
ILO -	International Labour Organisation
IPAR -	Institute of Policy Analysis and Research
UON -	University of Nairobi
UASU -	University Academic Staff Union
UNTESU -	University Non-Teaching Staff Union
UNESCO -	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction to the thesis

1.1 Background of the study

Over the last three decades, organisational commitment and job satisfaction have generated a lot of interest among researchers. The popularity of the concept has stemmed from its relationship with several important employee behaviours. For instance, the literature has shown that organisational commitment and job satisfaction may have positive impact on job performance (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Lambert, 2003; Lambert and Hogan, 2009) and negative relationships with turnover, intent to leave and tardiness (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Jaros, Jermier, Koehler and Sincich, 1993; Cohen, 1993; Angle and Perry, 1981). Therefore, predicting employee satisfaction, commitment and turnover is important because employees have become the only source of sustainable competitive advantage to organisations (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005). Therefore, employee commitment and satisfaction becomes critical if an organisation expects to be successful.

Allen and Meyer (1990) conceptualised organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct consisting of affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment. Even though many other forms of multidimensional commitment have been examined (Jaros *et al*., 1993; Angle and Perry, 1981), this study will adopt Meyer and Allen's (1991) multidimensional organisational commitment. This is because an employee's relationship with the organisation can reflect varying degrees of all the three dimensions (Turner and Chelladurai, 2005). Since most of the studies using Meyer and Allen's dimensions have been tested on Western samples, this study will extend their multidimensional construct to a Kenyan context (Suliman and Iles, 2000).

Several studies based on western research (e.g. Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Mueller and Price, 1986; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Meyer and Smith, 2000; Malhotra, Budhwar and Prowse, 2007) have shown that work-

related factors are major determinants of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions among employees. There is, however, limited research on this topic in Sub-Saharan Africa, and Kenya, in particular. The prevailing view is that the African cultural context is different from Western culture such that western-derived and tested arguments cannot be used to explain and understand organisational problems in developing African countries (Blunt and Jones, 1992). The aim of this study is to assess the applicability of western-based conceptualisation of work-related factors and how they influence job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In so doing, this study will provide empirical evidence about the nature of work in a developing country context, and how they affect employee behaviour.

This introductory chapter will provide an overview of the context of the study through a brief review of challenges afflicting higher education institutions in Kenya - issues that are subsequently explored in more depth in chapters two and three; the nature of organisational commitment and job satisfaction and their antecedents and consequences, which will be discussed at greater length in chapters four and five, are then briefly explored in order to highlight the relevance of, and rationale, for the study's aims and objectives. The aims and objectives along with the justification, importance of the study, the research methods and structure of the thesis are detailed.

1.1.1 Trends in organisational commitment

Organisational commitment researchers agree that there is no consensus over the definition of organisational commitment which has been extensively defined, measured and researched, and as a result, has been criticised for a lack of precision (Scholl, 1981; Reichers, 1985; Meyer and Allen, 1991). This lack of precision has given rise to inconsistent results from various studies. In this regard, Meyer and Allen (1997) advise researchers to specify the definition being used before discussing organisational commitment so as to avoid any confusion. Other problems related to the study of organisational commitment concerns its dimensionality, that is, whether it is unidimensional or multidimensional (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). Although past researchers have conceptualised it as a unidimensional construct, (Porter *et al.*, 1979; Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Wiener, 1982), recent studies have shown that it is a multidimensional construct (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Research studies have used different approaches to explain organisational commitment. These are the social exchange theory, attitudinal and behavioural approaches (Scholl, 1981; Mowday *et al*., 1982; Meyer and Allen, 1997). The exchange approach posits that employees attach themselves to their organisations in return for certain rewards from their organisations (March and Simon, 1958; Steers, 1977; Farrell and Rusbult, 1981; Aryee, Budhwar and Chen, 2002; Gould-Williams and Davies, 2005). According to this view, employees enter organisations with specific skills, desires and goals, and expect to find an environment where they can use their skills, satisfy their desires and achieve their goals (Steers, 1977; Mottaz, 1988). Therefore, employees' perceptions of favourable exchange/rewards are likely to result in increased commitment to the organisation while failure by the organisation to provide sufficient rewards in exchange for the employees' efforts is likely to result in decreased organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

The attitudinal approach perceives commitment as an individual's psychological attachment to the organisation. This approach posits that an employee's values and goals are congruent with those of the organisation (Mowday *et al*., 1982). Mowday *et al*. (1982, p.27) defines attitudinal commitment as:

> the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in a particular organisation. It can be characterised by at least three related factors; (i) a strong belief in, and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (ii) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (iii) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation.

The outcomes of this approach are increased performance, reduced absenteeism and low turnover (Steers, 1977). From an exchange perspective, employees are perceived to exchange their identification, loyalty and attachment to the organisation in return for incentives from the organisation. Another perspective of attitudinal commitment is the normative approach which states that employee's identification with the organisation's goals and values are as a result of loyalty and moral obligation and not calculative purposes (Wiener, 1982). These two approaches are known as affective and normative commitment respectively in the contemporary literature.

The behavioural approach views commitment as a force tying an individual to a specific organisation (Becker, 1960; Scholl, 1981). The employee is perceived to

continue membership with an organisation because of investments or side-bets which tie the employee to the organisation (Becker, 1960). Thus an employee becomes committed to an organisation because the perceived cost of doing otherwise is likely to be high. The behavioural approach is now referred to as "continuance" or "calculative" commitment in the literature. Studies have associated attitudinal (affective) commitment with desirable work attitudes while behavioural (continuance) commitment has been criticised for failing to encourage positive work attitudes since employees only retain membership with the organisation to safeguard their investments (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

Although past organisational commitment studies focused on either attitudinal or behavioural approach as unidimensional constructs, Mowday *et al*. (1982) have suggested that these two approaches are not mutually exclusive but are interrelated. Various studies have found evidence that organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct (Meyer and Allen, 1984; Reichers, 1985; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Allen and Meyer, 1996). For instance, Allen and Meyer (1990) reviewed several organisational commitment studies and found three general themes, namely: affective attachment to the organisation; perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation and an obligation to remain in the organisation. Although there are several other competing approaches to multidimensional organisational commitment (Angle and Perry, 1981; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Jaros *et al*., 1993), this study will use Meyer and Allen's (1991, p.67) conceptualisation of organisational commitment, which is defined as follows:

> *Affective commitment* which refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation; *normative commitment* which refers to the employee's feelings of obligation to stay with the organisation and *continuance commitment* which refers to the commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organisation.

1.1.2 Antecedents and consequences of organisational commitment and job satisfaction

The aim of this study is to identify the factors which are likely to influence organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among employees

in Kenyan universities. Research studies have found that highly committed employees who perform rewarding, meaningful and enjoyable jobs are less likely to turnover as compared to employees with low commitment levels and who are dissatisfied with their jobs (Steers, 1977; Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1979; Igbaria and Guimaraes, 1999; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).

Studies have identified various employee and work-related factors as antecedents of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Mottaz, 1988; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Lambert, 2004). The groups of variables that have been identified for this study are demographic characteristics, professional commitment, job and role-related factors and selected human resources management practices. Demographic characteristics such as age, tenure, education, gender and marital status have been found to play a significant role in enhancing employees' commitment and job satisfaction (Becker, 1960; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Al-Qarioti and Al-Enezi, 2004; Mottaz, 1988). Job characteristics and role stressors have also been found to be important predictors of employee commitment and job satisfaction. Employees are likely to exhibit high levels of commitment, job satisfaction and turnover less when they perform challenging and meaningful jobs characterised by factors such as skills variety, autonomy and feedback among others (Sims *et al*., 1976; Steers, 1977; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Mowday *et al*., 1982; Meyer and Allen, 1997). On the other hand, stressful work conditions have been found to negatively affect job satisfaction and organisational commitment and increase propensity to turnover (Lambert, 2003; Ngo, Foley and Loi, 2005). Similarly, various studies have stressed the central role that HRM practices play in creating and maintaining commitment and job satisfaction (Iles, Mabey and Robertson, 1990; Meyer and Smith, 2000; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Gould-Williams, 2004).

1.1.3 The challenges of managing of human resources in Kenya

The practice of human resource management in Kenya is a reflection of global events. Taylor (1992) observes that the development of HRM in developing countries is slower because of a small and ineffective private sector, unlike the private sector in developed countries which served as a model for best practice for other sectors. However, the entrance of multinational corporations into the local economy has

hastened the diffusion of human resource management values and concepts into Kenyan organisations.

The international HRM literature provides evidence that multi-national organisations are the channels through which HRM is imported to other countries and once there, diffuses into local organisations (Horwitz, Kamoche and Chew, 2002) but whether and how HRM procedures are practised is a subject for enquiry. Diffusion is also facilitated by local and international management consultants who sell HRM and other management ideas as prescriptions for survival thus increasing awareness and knowledge of HRM among organisations. There is no evidence, however, showing their impact probably because HRM practices have no tangible results and are difficult to measure.

The management of human resources in Kenya faced major challenges from the 1990s due to unprecedented changes in the macro-economic environment. Donor conditions on economic and political reforms and rapid advances in technology triggered organisational restructuring that led to downsizing and retrenchments. Price decontrols, removal of import tariffs and general liberalisation of the economy threw organisations into a survival mode. In addition, the withholding of donor aid, massive misappropriation of public funds and political uncertainties associated with the multi-party elections of 1992 and 1997 slowly led the country into an economic recession that is persisting to date. (see Chapter 2, Section 2.2.2).

As part of the structural adjustment programmes, the removal of employment protection through the financial bill of 1994 by the government gave more freedom to organisations to lay off employees faster as a cost reduction measure. This policy change opened the doors for organisations to regulate their workforce not only numerically but also financially and functionally. Rising unemployment and hostility by employers towards union organising increased employers' prerogative and power to treat employees in a more calculative and instrumental manner (Kamoche *et al*., 2004; CIA World Factbook, 2008). The sum total of these changes has had profound consequences for human resource management in particular. These events have led organisations to adopt different strategic orientations in the management of their workforce. While some chose to be more calculative in their approach by adopting

efficiency enhancing practices and tight controls, others adopted collaborative strategies such as intensive training, development and commitment enhancing practices.

Other challenges facing the management of human resources in organisations, especially the public sector in Kenya, have been due to weak and ineffective HRM departments whose main functions are merely a procedural administrative exercise concerned with managing tasks like salary and benefits administration, absenteeism, grievances, among others (Taylor, 1992; Kamoche, 1997). In a study of personnel management in Africa, Akinussi (1991) reported that:

> a major challenge that faces personnel management in Africa is the urgent need to undertake research into personnel practices and their effects on employee motivation and productivity and organisational effectiveness. The need for these stems from three issues ... the rapid changes taking place in the environment of organisations in Africa; the problems that beset personnel management in both private and public organisations; and the need to develop indigenous approaches to such issues as selection tests, appraisal systems and training methods, most of which are at present foreign-based (p. 171).

Further, Kamoche (1997: p. 269) has attributed the unsatisfactory performance of most public sector organisations to “the inappropriateness of management practice, weak and inefficient decision-making, poor investment planning, low productivity and overstaffing ... and low quality administrative skills to political patronage and governmental interference”.

1.2 The problem of the study

Kenya gained its independence from the British colonialists in 1963. By independence, it had one university college (University College of Nairobi), which was affiliated to the University of East Africa. It became a fully-fledged university in 1970 through an Act of Parliament and was charged with the responsibility of training graduates to Africanise the public and private sector which had earlier been occupied by colonial officers.

Kenya's economic growth was strong in the first two decades after independence and

weak or negative thereafter. From independence to 1970, the economy grew at an average real growth rate of 5 percent and between 1970 and 1980, it grew between 6.6 percent and 8 percent (Republic of Kenya, 1999; Legovini, 2002). The government was therefore able to meet the full cost of higher education through payment of the students' tuition fees, accommodation, upkeep and meals. However, from the early 1980s to the late 1990s, following the oil shocks of the 1970s, poor fiscal policies, uncompetitive trade policies and high-level government corruption, economic growth declined sharply while external and internal debt increased. In order to restore financial stability, the Bretton Wood Institutions (The World bank and IMF) instituted several Structural Adjustment Programmes (Swamy, 1994). The reform programmes were intended to reduce government expenditure in the public sector and to stimulate economic growth through restructuring and privatisation of state corporations, removal of anti-export bias and public sector reform (Ng'eno, 1996).

As a result of financial constraints, the government implemented structural adjustment programmes which greatly affected educational financing (Abagi, 1998). In order to reduce budgetary expenditure, the government introduced cost sharing measures in higher education in 1991 following pressure from the World Bank and other donor communities. This was pursued through the introduction of tuition fees and the elimination of subsidies for non-instructional costs such as housing and meals and de-linking of admission from residential provision (Abagi, 1998). However, these changes were resisted by students resulting in frequent unrests and university closures (Mutula, 2002).

This period of economic crisis saw the rapid quantitative growth of public universities and student enrolment. From one public university at independence, there are presently seven universities and 23 private universities while the student population has increased from 571 to about 112,229 students at present (Republic of Kenya, 2008). The decline in government expenditure on the education sector has had a serious effect on university services. This rapid expansion amid declining funds has seen the universities deteriorate in all dimensions, for instance, the physical facilities are run down; library facilities are overcrowded with outdated books; students halls are overcrowded; the quality of teaching and research has declined; student riots are on the increase; and staff are disillusioned due to a variety of factors, including

inadequate and non-competitive salaries and dissatisfaction with non-monetary factors such as poor working conditions, heavy workload, institutional governance among others (Abagi, 1998; Mutula, 2002; Tetty, 2006). These factors have led to the exodus of teaching staff to the private sector or abroad in search of better opportunities. Employees who have remained in their universities have opted to seek alternative means of supplementing their income thus compromising their loyalty to their universities.

Resulting from the crisis in public universities and the declining quality of education, private universities in Kenya have emerged as an alternative source of higher education. From one private university in 1980, there are presently 23 universities. These universities have gained a niche in the market for offering market-oriented courses which ensure the employability of their graduates. Academics from public universities have also sought part-time employment in private universities to supplement their income, thus boosting the quality of teaching in these universities. However, due to their dependence on tuition as their main source of funding, these universities are not affordable to low-income Kenyans and thus raising concerns about equity.

1.3 Aims of the study

The main aim of this study is to test the applicability of Meyer and Allen's three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment in a Kenyan context. Secondly, to identify the factors that influence organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees in selected private and public universities in Kenya.

1.3.1 Objectives of the study

From the aims of the study, the following specific objectives have been derived:

1. To determine the applicability of Meyer and Allen's (1991) multidimensional conceptualisation of organisational commitment to a Kenyan context.
2. To determine whether there were any sector (i.e. public and private) and occupational group (i.e. academic and administrative) differences in the level of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

3. To examine the extent to which demographic characteristics, professional commitment, job and role-related factors, and HRM practices influenced organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among employees in public and private universities
4. To establish the extent to which demographic characteristics, professional commitment, job and role-related factors, and HR practices on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees.
5. To establish the extent to which organisational commitment and job satisfaction influenced intentions to turnover among administrative and academic employees.
6. To identify the factors that contributed to the organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions of employees in private and public universities in Kenya.

1.4 Justification for the study

As mentioned above, the higher education system in Kenya experienced unprecedented growth and expansion from the 1980s at a time when the government could not adequately cover the financial demands of university education. As a result of the rapid expansion, mainly for reasons of political expediency, universities, particularly, public universities have been afflicted by a myriad of problems which have affected their ability to function as centres of excellence. Consequently, job satisfaction and commitment is low among the human resources due to a variety of factors including inadequate and non-competitive salaries and other non-monetary factors. This study will determine the factors that influence employee retention, commitment and job satisfaction.

The findings of this study are expected to enhance our knowledge of the human resource practices and other work-related factors used by universities in Kenya. Understanding the relationships among various variables related to turnover intentions, organisational commitment and job satisfaction will enable universities to adopt HR practices that will improve performance. The findings will also increase the

stock of theoretical and empirical knowledge especially in the African context and also form the basis for further research and teaching.

As with most African organisations, the human resource functions in most public institutions in Kenya, including universities, have been found to be weak and ineffectual mainly because HR activities are not considered very important or are simply held in low esteem (Kamoche, 1992; Kamoche, 1997). Although the private sector is considered relatively more efficient in comparison to the public sector, there is no clear empirical evidence to support that claim. As such, the findings of this study will show the best human resource management practices and other work-related practices, which can be useful to both public and private universities.

1.5 Importance of the study

i. The on-going reform programmes in Kenya have resulted in redundancy measures being implemented both in the public and private sector. Therefore, as organisations strive to become leaner, it is imperative to maintain a core of committed individuals who are the source of organisational life. Those who remain therefore must represent the "heart, brain and muscle" of the organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1997, p. 5). The outcomes of this study will advise the university management on the measures needed to enhance and maintain employee commitment during the restructuring period.

ii. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), workers who become less committed to an organisation will channel their commitment in other directions (e.g. careers, professions, unions, hobbies, volunteer groups). These employees may therefore start to evaluate their skills and experiences in terms of their marketability outside the organisation rather than utilise them in their current or future jobs in the organisation. Thus, it becomes imperative for organisations to know how to develop the right type of commitment and improve employee satisfaction so as to ensure that only better performing employees are retained.

iii. Highly committed employees tend to be better performers, exert greater effort on the job resulting in increased job performance, turnover less and exhibit better attendance (Angle and Perry, 1981; Meyer and Allen, 1997). This study

will therefore inform the management of higher education institutions on the type of commitment that is desirable to the attainment of their goals.

1.6 Gaps in the literature

1. Organisational commitment has been studied extensively among diverse professional groups. In this regard, Mowday *et al*., (1979) called for more work examining organisational commitment across divergent samples and demographics. The importance of organisational commitment in the realisation of organisational goals in higher education institutions, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa has remained untapped by researchers. This is despite the crucial role played by these institutions in the development of the skills and knowledge base needed for national development.
2. Ghebregriorgis and Karsten (2006) have noted that Africa contributes less to the existing body of knowledge because there is a common prejudice about HRM in Africa, which paints a negative picture of the continent thus impeding constructive research into the nature of management systems in Africa and into the implementation of Western management practices where appropriate.
3. Studies have shown that most of the organisational commitment research studies have been carried out using Western samples (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Smith, 2000; Lambert and Hogan, 2009) and emerging economies in Asia such as China and South Korea (Cheng and Stockdale, 2003; Ko, Price and Mueller, 1997; Lee, Allen, Meyer and Rhee, 2001). However, very few studies have used samples from sub-Saharan Africa and Kenya in particular, thus challenging the generalisability of these studies to a non-Western context. In addition, most of these studies have tended to use only one aspect of organisational commitment—affective/attitudinal commitment (e.g., Mulinge, 2000; Walumbwa, Lawler, and Avolio, 2007; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, and Lawler, 2005). In this regard, Meyer (1997) cited by Suliman and Iles (2000, p. 72) state that "the models of commitment… have been developed and tested in western countries. There is a need for more systematic research to determine whether these models apply elsewhere". Furthermore, since America and other Western countries are individualistic societies as compared to the collectivist culture of African countries, generalising the outcomes of these studies may be problematic. This is supported by Yaacob (1998, p.21) who states that "no findings can be accepted

universally unless they have been tested and proven in another culture or environment".

1.7 Research methodology

The research methodology and design of this study is discussed in Chapter Six. This study used a cross-sectional research design since the data was collected at one point in time. Quantitative research methods were adopted through the use of self-administered questionnaires for the data collection. The constructs and measurement scales used in the questionnaire were adapted from various studies following a rigorous review of the literature. To ensure face and content validity, the questionnaire was critiqued by an organisational commitment expert and thereafter piloted in two Kenyan universities. The comments from these two approaches were used to modify the questionnaire before the actual data collection. The reliability of the items was examined using Cronbach alpha. Statistical data analysis techniques were used to test the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. For instance, exploratory factor analysis was used to determine the generalisability of Meyer and Allen's multidimensional organisational commitment to a Kenyan context. Other analytical tools used in the study are: Pearsons correlation analysis, Independent samples t-test, chi-square, hierarchical regression analysis and Stepwise regression analysis. In addition, semi-structured interviews were conducted among 15 academic and administrative staff as a follow up of the questionnaires. Quotations from the interviews were used to support some of the findings from the statistical analyses.

1.8 Overview of the thesis

This thesis is presented in ten chapters as follows:

Chapter one sets the scene for the remainder of the study by outlining the main themes of the study. In this chapter, the background and rationale (problem) of the study is discussed. This is followed by brief discussions of the themes of the study; the research aims and objectives, justification, importance of the study; and finally the research methodology are also outlined.

Chapter two discusses the context of the study. It highlights the political, economic and socio-cultural factors in Kenya which have shaped the higher education sector in Kenya.

Chapter three discusses the status of the higher education sector in Kenya. The issues that have been discussed include growth and development of higher education; problems of funding and the major challenges facing public universities. Also discussed is the growth and expansion of private universities as an alternative provider of higher education and the challenges they are facing.

Chapter four reviews both empirical and theoretical literature on the key variables of the study. The chapter begins by reviewing relevant studies on the definitions, development and the different approaches to the measurement of organisational commitment. Secondly, a review of literature on job satisfaction and turnover intentions are presented. Finally, the chapter reviews job satisfaction and organisational commitment studies in the higher education contexts from developed and developing countries.

Chapter five highlights the role of various employee and work-related factors in influencing organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The most important groups of variables that were identified for the study are demographic characteristics, professional commitment, job and role-related factors and human resource management practices.

Chapter six discusses the research methodology used to accomplish the study objectives. The research design, population of the study, sampling procedures, data collection methods, questionnaire development and administration, reliability and validity of the measurement scales and the data analysis techniques are presented.

Chapter seven presents the descriptive statistics of the respondents and universities that formed the sample of the study. This is followed by factor analysis of organisational commitment scale and continuance commitment to determine their dimensionality. Finally, the results of bivariate statistical analyses to establish mean score differences of the variables among the respondents are presented.

Chapter eight presents the results of tests of hypotheses and interpretations of the relationships among the various variables of the study. The analyses focus on determining the most important variables to influence organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees. Hierarchical and stepwise regression analyses were used to test these relationships.

Chapter nine presents the findings of the study. This chapter starts with a summary of the research problem and research methodology. This is followed by a discussion of the results and the extent to which they are consistent with or contrary to past empirical findings and theoretical arguments.

Chapter ten is the final chapter and presents the summary and conclusions of the study. The broader implications of the findings for theory and practice, the limitations of the study and recommendations for future studies, are discussed. It also presents a model representing the most important predictors of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees.

CHAPTER TWO

Overview of the Kenyan context

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the context of higher education in Kenya. It will discuss the political, economic and socio-cultural developments since independence which have contributed to the crisis that higher education is facing today. The main issues to be discussed are the reform programmes that were implemented by the World Bank and IMF with the aim of increasing the rate of economic growth. Ethnicity will also be highlighted because of its impact on political, economic and management practices.

2.2. The context of Kenya

The historical development of Kenya from pre-independence to-date has played a significant role in its political, economic and socio-cultural spheres. These different dimensions play an important role in the development and management of higher education institutions.

2.2.1 The political environment

Kenya is located in the Eastern part of Africa and has a population of over 30 million people. It became a British colony in the early 20th century when the British went to build the Kenya-Uganda railway and decided to settle in Kenya. This occupation lasted until 1963 when Kenya gained independence. Kenya's founding president, Mzee Jomo Kenyatta ruled from independence until his death in 1978, when former President Daniel Toroitich arap Moi, then Vice president, took over power in a constitutional succession. Kenya was a de facto one-party state under the Kenya African National Union (KANU) from 1969 and reinforced by Moi's government after the attempted military coup in 1982, by making KANU the only legal political party. However, increasing clamour for multiparty politics which received a lot of international support from the 1980s, forced Moi to reluctantly accept the registration of opposition parties in 1991. Multi-party democracy, however, did not come easily as

it resulted in violent confrontations between the government and members of the opposition, gross human rights violations by the government and politically instigated ethnic "clashes"[1] (Holmquist, Weaver and Ford, 1994; Ochieng, 2007).

The ethnically fractured opposition failed to dislodge KANU from power during the 1992 and 1997 general elections, which were marred by violence and allegations of vote rigging. President Moi finally stepped down in December, 2002 following fair and peaceful elections. Mwai Kibaki, running as the candidate of the multiethnic, united opposition group, the National Rainbow Coalition (NARC) won the election on a platform of zero-tolerance to corruption. However, disagreements among the coalition partners over the power sharing deal resulted in a splinter group quitting the government (members of the Liberal Democratic Movement) and joining KANU to form the Orange Democratic Movement resulting in the defeat of the government draft constitution in a referendum in November 2005, thus setting the tone for the December, 2007 elections. By election time, hostilities among different ethnic groups and their political outfits were at fever pitch with counterclaims of vote rigging. Despite the standoff over the results amid claims of rigging, the Electoral Commission of Kenya went ahead to announce that Mwai Kibaki was the president. This announcement and the hurried night-time swearing-in ceremony at Statehouse unleashed an orgy of violence which resulted in over 1,300 deaths and at least 600,000 Kenyans being displaced from their homes. Intense international mediation saw the two warring camps agree to share power resulting in the formation of the Grand National Coalition government. However, despite peace being restored in the country, the government has failed to meet the expectations of Kenyans, who have been saddled with a bloated cabinet, massive corruption and insensitivity of the leaders on the plight of Kenyans.

2.2.2 The economic environment

After independence, Kenya experienced rapid economic growth through public investment, the encouragement of smallholder firm production and the provision of incentives for private and foreign industrial investment. Its main foreign currency earners were coffee, tea and tourism. From 1963 to 1973, Kenya achieved an average

[1] Different communities were pitted against each other resulting in over 1,000 people dead and more than 100,000

annual growth of 6.6% (Republic of Kenya, 1999) but from the mid-1980s, the economy began to decline drastically with economic growth registering -0.3% in 2000 (Thakar and Cowan, 2001). This decline was mainly caused by rising oil prices, poor agricultural policies, inadequate credit, tight import and foreign exchange controls and high-level government corruption, making the domestic investment environment unattractive to foreign investors.

During the late 1980s and early 1990s, Kenya's economic difficulties were compounded by donor support for political change resulting in the freezing of financial aid to the country for six months pending the government's implementation of economic and political reforms (Grosh and Orvis, 1996/97). Although the government repealed the one-party state in 1991, this did not result in good governance but instead led to serious economic crimes being committed by members of the government. The rippling effects of these crimes are still being felt in the economy to date. Some of these scandals include the printing of paper money to finance the first multi-party election campaigns in 1992 resulting in an inflation rate of over 46% (Kimemia, 2000), land "grabbing"[2] and the "Goldenberg"[3] scandal (Cohen, 1995). Unfortunately, the coalition government of President Mwai Kibaki popularly elected in December, 2002 on a platform of zero-tolerance to corruption, has also been dogged by claims of massive high-level government corruption running into hundreds of millions of dollars (Timamy, 2005). In addition, there was an outbreak of violence following the disputed December 27, 2007 general election which paralysed the economy; and in the global recession, Kenya's economic growth fell from 7 per cent in 2007 to 1.7 per cent in 2008 and is projected to be in the range of 2 to 3 per cent in 2009 (Thomasson, 2009; Kimani, 2009; Republic of Kenya, 2009).

High level government corruption has seen Kenya being ranked among the most corrupt nations in the league tables prepared by reputable bodies such as Transparency International (Munene, 2005). For instance, in the 2008 corruption perception index, Kenya ranked 147 out of 190 countries, which makes it the 43rd

displaced families.

[2]These are illegal allocations of government houses, offices, land and utility plots to politically correct individuals.

[3] This was a high level scam involving senior government officers and businessmen in which about $850 million was paid out as export compensation for non-existent gold and diamonds

most corrupt country in the world and the 15th most corrupt country in Africa (Transparency International, 2008; Anyangu, 2009). This prevalence of corruption has been fostered by an uncaring attitude to the utilisation of state resources and weak governance structures which have allowed politicians and senior public servants to flout the law with impunity (Kamoche, 2001). This has undermined the management of public resources, the effectiveness of the public service, the rule of law, and accountability. Consequently, the donor community have on a number of occasions frozen aid to Kenya, effectively starving the economy of much needed financial support.

Other challenges affecting Kenya's economy can be traced to the colonial era. The colonial occupation resulted in the economic and educational development of some regions in the country at the expense of other regions, leading to the unequal distribution of resources in Kenya to date (Holmquist *et al*., 1994; Warah, 2009). This inequality has been aggravated by the country's leadership since independence which has promoted economic development on ethnic lines. Distribution of state resources and key positions in the government and state corporations have been used as a form of reward or punishment for communities that are seen as being loyal or disloyal to the presidency and the governing party (Timamy, 2005). As a result, politics in Kenya has not centred on issues or programmes for the country's development but on individuals and factions rooted in historically constructed ideologies of ethnicity (Holmquist *et al*., 1994).

2.2.2.1 Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs)

By the early 1980's, the Government of Kenya acknowledged that it was facing problems in managing the economy and, with the assistance of the World Bank and IMF, it initiated comprehensive SAPs designed to halt economic stagnation, revitalise growth, redress internal and external macroeconomic disequilibria and restore sustainable development (Karingi and Siriwardana, 2001). Riddell (1992) observes that Kenya, like other African countries, resorted to donor funding as a temporary "fix" for their financial crisis thus creating a cycle of dependency. Kenya has since been subjected to 150 structural adjustment conditions aimed at rejuvenating the economy (Cohen, 1993).

The SAPs were implemented in four phases as follows: 1980-84; 1985-91; 1992-95, and 1996-1998. The first phase (1980-84) was characterised by a total lack of compliance, partly because of design and timing shortcomings as well as limited commitment to the stated policy changes by a small clique of top civil servants (Swamy, 1994: p. 2). During the second phase (1985 – 1991) the government accepted these reforms as shown by *Sessional Paper No. 10 of 1986 on Economic Management for Renewed Growth* (Republic of Kenya, 1986) in various sectors especially agriculture, trade and industry, education, health, parastatals and foreign-exchange markets. However, due to lack of compliance by senior government officers, most of the recommended policy changes were not implemented immediately. By 1991, donor frustrations with the slow pace of reform implementations resulted in suspension of donor support to Kenya. Other reasons for the suspension of aid included rising levels of corruption, slow reforms in the civil service, lack of accountability of public enterprises and the slow pace of political reform (Swamy, 1994).

The third phase (1992-95) represented a time when the government showed a serious commitment to the implementation of SAPs resulting in the resumption of aid in April, 1993 (Swamy, 1994). According to Policy Framework Paper of 1996 (Republic of Kenya, 1996) direct controls on domestic prices, internal marketing, external trade, and the exchange system were eliminated, while the exchange rate and interest rates were left to be determined by market forces. However, despite these measures being put in place, the economy continued to perform poorly due to weak macroeconomic management, slow progress in structural reforms and failure to address governance issues. Further, political upheaval that characterised the 1992 and 1997 elections deeply affected Kenya's credibility in the international community, with donors withholding quick disbursement funds until the government restored macroeconomic stability. However, Grosh and Orvis (1996/97) have noted that the human and economic cost of the aid cut-off and what they term as "political conditionality" in Kenya has been high. Finally, the fourth phase (1996-98) targeted poverty reduction and increased access to social services by the poor. To achieve this objective, the IMF approved a three-year loan for Kenya under the enhanced structural adjustment facility (IMF, 1996).

Some of the reform agenda programmes aimed at accelerating economic growth included tighter fiscal and monetary policies; budget rationalisation; removal of export subsidies and trade barriers; restructuring of state corporations; public sector reforms; and reforms in the education sector among others.

Public Service Reform Programmes (PSRPs)

The objective of the Public Service Reform Programmes **(**PSRPs) was to rationalise the size of the public service and improve its efficiency. The PSRPs were therefore expected to reduce the cost of the public service in relation to its human resources. The privatisation of the state-owned corporations (parastatals) was also expected to not only reduce the size of the public service workforce of more than 300,000 but to also lessen the pressure on limited government financial resources.

The first PSRPs in Kenya in the early 1990s were aimed at making the government leaner and affordable through cost reduction and containment measures such as divesture of non-core operations; retrenchment of 23,448 employees; removal of 4500 'ghost' workers from the payroll; freeze on recruitment except in critical areas; voluntary retirement schemes and withdrawal of guaranteed employment for pre-trainees and graduates of tertiary institutions (DPM, 2002). However, the gains of the retrenchment programmes through a voluntary early retirement scheme between 1994 and 1996, were reversed through the hiring of teachers during the same period as well as the reinstatement of persons who were supposedly retrenched erroneously (Mutahaba and Kiragu, 2002).

Education Sector Reform

Since gaining independence, Kenya's educational system expanded rapidly, partly in reaction to the highly restrictive and unequal educational practices of the colonial government and due to the huge growth of the school going population. The rising levels of public expenditure on education led to the introduction of cost sharing measures which required parents to increase their contribution towards their children's education in terms of the construction of school infrastructure and the purchase of teaching and learning materials. Through the reform programme, the government also terminated the allowances it was paying university students, including the cost of accommodation and meals, and restricted admissions to 10,000

students annually. Subsidised tuition fee of Ksh. 50,000 per year against a unit cost of Ksh. 120,000 was introduced with the government making up the difference (Abagi, 1998).

2.2.2.2 Impact of Structural Adjustment Programmes

Although the SAPs resulted in reduced government expenditure and the opening up of the country to "free market" conditions, their negative economic and social impact continue to be felt almost two decades after their introduction. The government of Kenya has criticised the IMF and the World Bank for giving them a bitter pill to swallow, since the reforms addressed only the long-term implications of the economy and ignored the human side of development resulting in hardship, especially among the vulnerable. Rono (2002) argues that although these programmes were initially meant to address economic problems, they shifted to address political issues based on Western political models by emphasizing the needs for popular participation in decision making, decentralization of power structures, accountability and the reduced role of government in the state economy.

The implementation of these reforms led to a significant reduction in the huge deficits incurred in the early 1990s, from a massive 10 per cent of the GDP in 1992/93 to 0.25% of GDP in 1996/97. This however, was achieved at the expense of development and maintenance of infrastructure. In addition, the introduction of cost sharing in education and health services and the removal of food subsidies resulted in the reversal of development successes of the 1960s and 1970s with rising child mortality, falling school enrolment and while millions of Kenyans slide into poverty every year. Staff reductions and employment freezes have created a shortage of skilled professionals and technicians throughout the public sector including universities while the number of unemployed graduates has continued to rise (Mutula, 2002). The freeze on salary increments has led to a decline in standards of living and inability by employers to retain or motivate their employees.

Since more than 50 per cent of the retrenchees were low cadre staff, the savings made were not enough to uplift the low salaries of the remaining public servants. Inevitably, morale and discipline has remained low and unethical conduct such as bribery and

corruption have been on the rise causing a further deterioration in public service delivery. According to Young (2004), poor remuneration in the public sector has resulted in a demoralised workforce that has resorted to "extracting rents" from their administrative functions and devoting part of their working day to private pursuits.

Although the SAPs have led to a decline in formal employment through retrenchment and freeze on employment, there has been a dramatic expansion of informal sector employment. Manda (2002) reports that the formal sector's share in total employment declined from 78% in 1988 to 28% in 2000 while growth in the informal sector rose from 20% to 70% in the same period. This growth has been propelled by the rising incidence of "moonlighting" activities by formal sector workers, in response to an erosion of earnings while workers who have been retrenched from the public sector and those from collapsed private industries have sought refuge in the informal sector (ILO and IPAR, 1996; Manda, 2002).

The reforms have also negatively affected the education sector. Through the policy of cost-sharing, there have been increasing rates of non-enrolment, grade repetition and dropout in educational institutions, especially at the primary level. Further, the marginalisation of the poor in terms of education and the decline in quality of education in Kenya has been linked to these programmes, with those who fail to complete or drop out of school finding it difficult to secure employment, and often ending up as social misfits (Rono, 2002). Consequently, it is only children from well-to-do families who end up taking educational opportunities at higher levels at the expense of those from poor families resulting in social inequality and underdevelopment.

The reduction of government budgetary allocation to public universities has severely affected their ability to deliver quality education. Due to lack of adequate funding, physical facilities are overcrowded and crumbling; poor remuneration of staff has resulted in low morale and high turnover rates among the academic staff as they seek better prospects abroad or in the private sector. Consequently, public universities have had to devise ways of creating additional income to meet their budget deficits, a process which has affected their ability to offer quality education.

2.2.3 The Socio-cultural environment

The socio-cultural context is an important consideration in a multi-ethnic society such as Kenya. Currently, Kenya is a greatly divided nation on ethnic/tribal lines which is not only a threat to national unity but also likely to challenge effective management of organisations. Cohen (1995) found that because of a culture of patronage and parochialism, donor-funded projects in Kenya were being used by politicians and government officials to advance their tribal agendas. As a result, a study by the World Bank found Kenya to be among the 15 most ethnically fractionised countries in Africa (Cohen, 1995). As such, the role played by ethnicity in determining Kenya's work structure, even in institutions of higher learning, cannot be overlooked in this study.

2.2.3.1 Ethnicity and its impact on employment in Kenya

Ethnicity also referred to as tribalism, is the employment and mobilisation of ethnic identity or difference to gain advantage in situations of competition, conflict or cooperation (Osaghae, 1995, cited by Ukiwo, 2005, p.8). The ethnic grouping is therefore one whose members share a common identity and affinity based on certain common cultural criteria such as language, beliefs and values, religion and history, which have become the basis for differentiating "us" from "them" and upon which people act (Le Vine, 1997; Nyambegera, 2002). Negative ethnicity, which is prevalent in Kenya, arises when ethnic groups are competitive rather than cooperative and is characterised by cultural prejudice and political discrimination. Therefore, people who join organisations often carry with them a baggage of values inherent in their identity which is later reflected in their work behaviour (Nyambegera, 2002).

Kenya is made up of 42 tribes, each with its own unique language and culture. Unfortunately, these ethnic differences have not been managed properly resulting in ethnic tensions and hostilities. These have on several occasions flared into politically-motivated tribal clashes from the 1990's and saw Kenya undergo one of its worst experience during the post-election violence of December, 2007 and almost plunged the country into a civil war.

Ethnicity has permeated the workplace in many organisations in Kenya. Because the line separating an employee's family life and his/her organisational work life is very

easily crossed, most senior organisational and government officers have been under a lot of pressure to provide jobs to their kith and kin resulting in some of these organisations having employees from mainly one or two ethnic groups (Nzelibe, 1986; Kamoche, 1992). Managers therefore need to take into account the impact of ethnicity in order to understand employee behaviour or work attitudes.

Public universities have not been spared from the influence of tribalism in the appointment of their top managers thus undermining their image as national centres of academic excellence. Recent selection of principals to new colleges and campuses has been based mainly on ethnic considerations or regions where the institutions are located, rather than on merit (Kiprotich and Otieno, 2008; Siringi, 2009). Prof. Bethwell Ogot, a Chancellor of one of the public universities, observes that public universities risk being turned into "tribal institutions of excellence" unless the government takes urgent measures to reverse the trend (Odunga, 2008).

Ethnicity in the workplace takes several forms such as favouritism in recruitment, promotions, career advancements and the provision of training opportunities Kamoche (1992). In present day Kenya, minimising the effect of ethnicity in the workplace has become more difficult as politicians continue to use their ethnic groups to further consolidate power and in the process, instil ethnic tensions, especially in the public sector. This is made worse by rising unemployment forcing people to rally even closer to their ethnic roots in the hope of gaining favour from their tribesmen who are in positions of authority (Kamoche, 2001).

Employee retention and morale in the public sector has been affected by open discrimination against employees from particular ethnic groups (Cohen, 1995). This can take the form of slow promotions, negative evaluation, meaningless assignments and transfer to undesirable jobs or field locations among other things. Because of this practice, the government is unable to meet the demands for skilled personnel due to social pressure on government officials to employ home area kinsmen who may not possess the necessary skills. The politicisation of the civil service has resulted in employees from tribes not in the ruling coalition or in the opposition losing their jobs. For instance, when President Mwai Kibaki took over power in December, 2002, many years of bitterness against former President Moi's leadership resulted in most senior

government officers from Moi's ethnic group or from other tribes which supported Moi's government, being sacked while others were either demoted or transferred to hardship areas. In return, cronies from the incumbent's tribe, some way beyond retirement age, were rewarded with lucrative government, military and ambassadorial positions.

It is therefore, imperative for organisations to put in place strict HRM practices to avoid negative practices that will adversely affect employees work behaviour. For example, an organisation practising recruitment, selection, promotion and rewards on the basis of kinship or tribalism will end up having the organisation staffed by people from the same ethnic group leaving the minority feeling unappreciated and hence resenting the majority. This eventually destroys any chances of team spirit and employee commitment to the organisation.

Due to the sensitive nature of ethnicity in Kenya, this study will not carry out any empirical tests to find out whether ethnicity had any impact on organisational commitment.

2.3 Summary

This chapter has discussed the Kenyan context which plays a significant role in the effective management of higher education. Kenya was prescribed a series of reforms that were meant to stimulate economic growth in the 1990s following a decade of poor economic performance, fiscal indiscipline and runaway corruption. These market reforms included the removal of exchange rate controls, trade restrictions, abolition of price control, public sector reforms among others. Although these reforms enabled the government to reduce its expenditure, they have had a negative impact on the economic and social sector. For instance, restructuring of the parastatals and the public service resulted in massive job losses and hence increased household poverty. The reduction of government expenditure on social services such as health and education has seen an increase in child mortality rates while dropout rates in schools and universities are high due to poverty. University services and infrastructure have also been seriously affected by these reforms.

Being a multiethnic society, ethnic diversity in Kenya has not been managed well. The importance of ethnicity in institutions in Kenya, therefore, cannot be down played as it has permeated every sector of the economy. Institutional managers have to appreciate ethnicity as a potential source of conflict in the work place (Kamoche, 2001).

The next chapter discusses the higher education sector in Kenya.

CHAPTER THREE

The higher education crisis in Kenya

3.1 Introduction

Higher education institutions play a crucial role in the development of the human resources of a country. Consequently, universities are expected to train high-level human resources to participate in national development; to teach and create new knowledge through research and advanced training; to act as a conduit for the transfer, adaptation and dissemination of such knowledge; and to respond to the demands of national development and emerging socio-economic needs with a view to finding solutions to problems facing the country (Republic of Kenya, 1988; World Bank, 1994). In this regard, Harbisond and Myers (1964) cited by Banya and Elu (2001, p. 3) state that: "if a country is unable to develop its human resources, it cannot build anything else, whether it be a modern political system, a sense of national unity or a prosperous economy". Investment in higher education is therefore crucial to a country's economic growth (World Bank 1994).

In the sections that follow, the higher education crisis in Kenya is examined in relation to the unprecedented growth and expansion of public universities; financial challenges and its effects on university services. Also discussed is the growth and development of private universities in Kenya as an alternative provider of higher education and the challenges they are facing in offering quality education.

3.2 Development of education in Kenya

Education policies and philosophies in Kenya provide a useful background and perspectives in understanding the current state of, and problems afflicting the education sector in the country, especially higher education. During the colonial period, these policies placed heavy emphasis on the need to promote agriculture, the development of native industries and the inculcation of ideals of citizenry and service (Republic of Kenya, 1965; Sifuna, 1998). At that time, Kenyans were largely viewed

as labourers requiring manual skills and were generally perceived as unsuited for intellectual pursuits, especially in higher level job positions which were at the time reserved for the whites. These policies, which emphasised technical and vocational education, were resented by most Kenyans who felt that they were intended to condemn them to inferior social, economic and political status (Njeru and Orodho, 2003).

On the attainment of independence in 1963, the Kenyan government and the private sector collectively endeavoured to enhance the development of education to suit the country's needs. The rapid development of education was fuelled by two factors, namely; the need to replace departing colonial and expatriate staff in the public and private sector; and the feeling by the newly independent government of a strong responsibility for the welfare of its people which had previously been ignored (Sifuna, 1998; Njeru and Orodho, 2003). Banya and Elu (2001, p. 4) state that:

> ... throughout sub-Saharan Africa in the 1960s, there was a critical shortage of administrative, scientific and technical manpower. The situation was particularly acute because higher education institutions had been established only recently and the senior ranks of the public service were staffed predominantly by expatriates. The newly independent African nations lacked personnel trained in many areas of priority for their future development.

The rapid development of education and training in Kenya was based on the policies spelt out in Sessional Paper No. 10 *African Socialism and its application to planning* (Republic of Kenya, 1965) in which the government committed itself to combating illiteracy, ignorance, and poverty. In an attempt to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the education sector, this Sessional Paper has undergone several reviews by special commissions and working parties appointed by the government over the last four decades (Republic of Kenya, 1965; 1976; 1981; 1988; 1999).

3.3 Growth and Development of Higher Education

Higher education in Kenya can be traced to then Makerere College in Uganda, founded in 1922 during the British colonial rule as a Technical college for African students from the three East African countries, namely; Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika, presently Tanzania. The first Kenyan higher education institution was the

Royal Technical College of East Africa established in Nairobi in 1951 through a Royal Charter and admitted its first students in 1956. Following the recommendations of the Working Party, under the chairmanship of the then Vice-Chancellor of the University of London, the Royal Technical College of East Africa became the second university college in East Africa in 1961 under the name "Royal College Nairobi". It began offering degrees in Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science in Engineering through the University of London.

On 20th May, 1964, after Kenya attained independence, the Royal College Nairobi was renamed University College, Nairobi, and joined Dar es Salaam University College, Tanzania and Makerere University College to form the Federal University of East Africa. These constituent colleges continued to offer courses leading to the award of degrees of the Federal University of East Africa until 1970 when it was dissolved due to national pressures mainly from Kenya and Tanzania, with each of the three countries establishing their own national universities through their respective Acts of Parliament (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). Consequently, the University of Nairobi became Kenya's first fully-fledged university through an Act of Parliament (UON, 2007; Sifuna, 1997). Kenyatta College, then a diploma awarding college of education a few kilometres outside Nairobi, became a constituent college of University of Nairobi under the name Kenyatta University College. The University of Nairobi has since grown to be the largest university in Eastern and Central Africa with over 30,000 students, the highest concentration of scholars and academic programmes housed in 14 faculties, 7 institutes, over 100 departments and one school managed through six campus colleges headed by Principals (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007).

From 1980, there has been a significant expansion of public universities in response to increased demand for university education. So far, six more public universities have been established, each by an Act of Parliament. Moi University was established in 1984 following the recommendations of the Presidential Working Party on the Second University in Kenya, chaired by Canadian scholar, Professor Mackay (Republic of Kenya, 1981). The university mainly runs programmes in science and technology and presently has three college campuses. Kenyatta University, a constituent college of University of Nairobi, was elevated to university status in 1985. It is situated in the outskirts of Nairobi and is renowned for its programmes in education for which it is

considered the leading educational institution in Eastern and Central Africa (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). It also offers various degree programmes in physical and social sciences. Egerton University, a constituent college of the University of Nairobi since 1979, was upgraded to fully-fledged university in 1987. The university is best known for its degree and diploma programmes in agriculture although it now offers a variety of other programmes in engineering, education, arts, science and computing. It has three college campuses.

Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT), which was a constituent college of Kenyatta university, elevated to full university status in 1994. It offers programmes in engineering, electronics and dairy technology. Maseno University, a constituent college of Moi University, was established in 2000. Finally, Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology, a constituent College of Moi University in 2002, was elevated to full university status in 2007. It specializes in science and engineering degree programmes as well as arts and education.

In addition to the public universities, private universities have also been on the rise in the last two decades. There are presently 23 private universities, out of which 11are fully-chartered and 12 operating with letters of interim authority or certificates of registration from the Commission of Higher Education (CHE, 2008; Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). These will be discussed in detail in Section 3.7.

3.4 University expansion

After independence in 1963, Kenya placed great importance on the role of education in promoting economic and social development. The education system rapidly expanded to train qualified personnel to not only enhance economic growth but also to Africanise the civil service in the post-independence state. For instance, at the primary level, enrolment increased from 891,533 pupils in 1963 to about 8.56 million in 2008; over the same period, secondary school enrolment rose from 30,000 students to over 1.33 million students while university enrolment rose from 571 students in 1963 to about 118,239 students in 2008 (Republic of Kenya, 1988; Republic of Kenya, 2003; Republic of Kenya, 2009). This rapid growth of the higher education system occurred despite the economic difficulties the government was facing. Despite what seems to

be high enrolment rates in the universities, studies show that sub-Saharan Africa has the lowest enrolment rates as compared to other countries in the world (Teferra and Altbach, 2004; Kigotho, 2008b). Enrolment rates in sub-Saharan Africa stand at five (5) per cent as compared to 20 percent in East Asia and 29 per cent in Latin America, while the world average stands at 24 per cent (Kigotho, 2008b).

The growth and expansion of public universities in Kenya can be divided into three distinct periods, namely: 1956-1984; 1985-1990; 1991 to present. The expansion of universities from 1956 to 1984 was planned and controlled. As mentioned earlier, University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University College were the only institutions which dominated the higher education scene. During this phase, higher education was considered to be 'free' [4] with the government covering the students' tuition, accommodation, living allowances and general welfare which was supported by a large number of staff (Hoffman, 1995/96; Republic of Kenya, 1998; Court, 1999). By offering free higher education, the government hoped to stimulate enrolment into universities and produce the required manpower to take up new jobs in the civil service and the private sector following the departure of expatriate staff soon after Kenya's independence in 1963 (Boit, 1998; Wangenge-Ouma, 2008). It was not until 1980 that the government issued a directive that called for the establishment of a second university before the end of the 1979-1983 Development Plan period. The decision to establish the second university gained wide public support due to the increasing demand for university education, leading to the establishment of Moi University. The enrolment ratio at that time for the 18-23 age groups in Kenya at tertiary level was only about 1%, with the majority in middle-level colleges (Sifuna, 1998). Although the establishment of the second university was seen as President Moi's attempt at seeking political mileage (Sifuna, 1997), it was clear by then that University of Nairobi could no longer satisfy the growing demand for higher education (Oketch, 2004).

The second phase of the expansion took place between 1985 and 1990 mainly through presidential pronouncements and therefore largely unplanned. This phase was mainly associated with former President Moi's desire for national pride and domestic politics

[4] During this period, effective mechanisms for recovering these loans were not in place. Recovery began in the 1990s through the Higher Education Loans Board.

than with planned need for these institutions (Abagi, 1998; Sifuna, 1998; Amutabi, 2003). This period saw the establishment of two universities and two constituent colleges in a span of five years, which saw a rise in student enrolment far in excess of numbers projected in the early 1980s (World Bank, 1991). The astronomical growth in this phase which took place during the 1987/1988 academic year was caused by three factors. Firstly, a presidential decree issued to all the Vice Chancellors of the four public universities in existence then to admit the 1985 and 1986 'A' level candidates as a 'double intake' irrespective of the availability of space (Amutabi, 2003). This was seen as a solution to the problem of backlog of students created by the 1982 unsuccessful military coup resulting in 14 months closure of the University of Nairobi and subsequent one year closure of the universities in 1986 following students' unrest (Republic of Kenya, 1988). Secondly, President Moi issued a directive to the Joint Admissions Board to lower the minimum entry points to universities from 13 to 10 points due to 'great public demand and outcry' leading to the admission of an additional 5000 students (Amutabi, 2003). These directives resulted in the admission of all 13,832 qualified applicants, which far exceeded their normal annual intake of about 4,000 students (Hughes, 1994).

Thirdly, a second presidential decree in 1989 which ordered the Vice Chancellors to carry out a second double intake in 1989 in order to accommodate the last groups of 'A' level system of education and the first 'O' level candidates of the 8-4-4 system of education who did their exams in 1988. This was occasioned by a change in the education system from the British system (7-4-2-3) to the American system (8-4-4), resulting in the admission of 20,837 students (Republic of Kenya, 1998). Since the president was the Chancellor of all public universities and appointed the Vice Chancellors, they had no choice but to implement the directives despite the challenges these intakes posed. Due to lack of adequate accommodation, the universities hurriedly put up prefabs (temporary wooded structures) and evicted some employees living in university houses to give room to students.

These expansions saw the demise of middle-level colleges in Kenya as the government hurriedly turned these colleges into universities. This has had long-term consequences for students who did not attain university minimum entry requirements. The use of double-decker beds was introduced in the hostels to increase capacity, so

that a room that was intended for one student accommodated up to four students. These double intakes resulted in extremely large classes which could not fit into any of the existing lecture rooms. For example, during the 1990/91 academic year, Moi University had over 1,700 first year undergraduate students admitted for the Bachelor of Education programme (Boit, 1998). Due to lack of space, the universities had to change from the two semester mode to three semesters in a year (christened 'marathon'[5]). This meant that teaching was carried out throughout the year with sometimes a weekend break separating one semester from another. Semesters were often rushed through with and shortened in order to accommodate all the groups. Uninhabitable conditions in these universities resulted in several students' unrest which further delayed completion dates. Deloitte and Touche, in a study on the prospects of university graduates, reported that:

> The decision to admit almost 21000 new students [in 1990/91] to the public university system resulted in pushing the varsities beyond their capacity. Large classes of over 500 students were not unusual and the tutorial system was on the route to becoming a thing of the past. As a result of the two periods of double intakes [i.e. 1987/88 and 1990/91], controversy and problems with the introduction of the 8-4-4 system ... and the [frequent and unscheduled closures] of the universities, the net result... has been a decline in academic quality. Unfortunately, in some instances, a common form of teaching has become the dictation of notes in a rote-like manner. One view point is that the teaching skills in critical thinking and ability to reason are not widely in evidence (Republic of Kenya, 1998, p. 96).

The biggest challenge occasioned by this expansion was the shortage of teaching staff. This was so severe that universities were forced to recruit from each other, resulting in total disregard of their recruitment and selection criteria. This recruitment vendetta came to be known as 'poaching' with the most vulnerable lecturers being those who had not been promoted by their respective universities either because they did not meet the requirements for promotion or because there were no available positions in the establishment. The universities also began to recruit inexperienced personnel with masters' degrees directly from universities, teacher training colleges, polytechnic, other middle level colleges and research institutions as full-time and part-time[6] staff.

[5] Because of limited facilities, the three semester system in one calendar year enables students to learn in shifts (other groups remain at home when others are learning). This system is often disrupted when students riot.

[6] A part-time lecturer in the Kenyan context is paid an hourly rate for the credit hours taught together with mileage, but does not enjoy any other benefits from the concerned university. A full-time staff, on the other hand, is employed on permanent and pensionable terms and enjoys benefits such as medical allowances, house allowance, pension, paid study leave among others

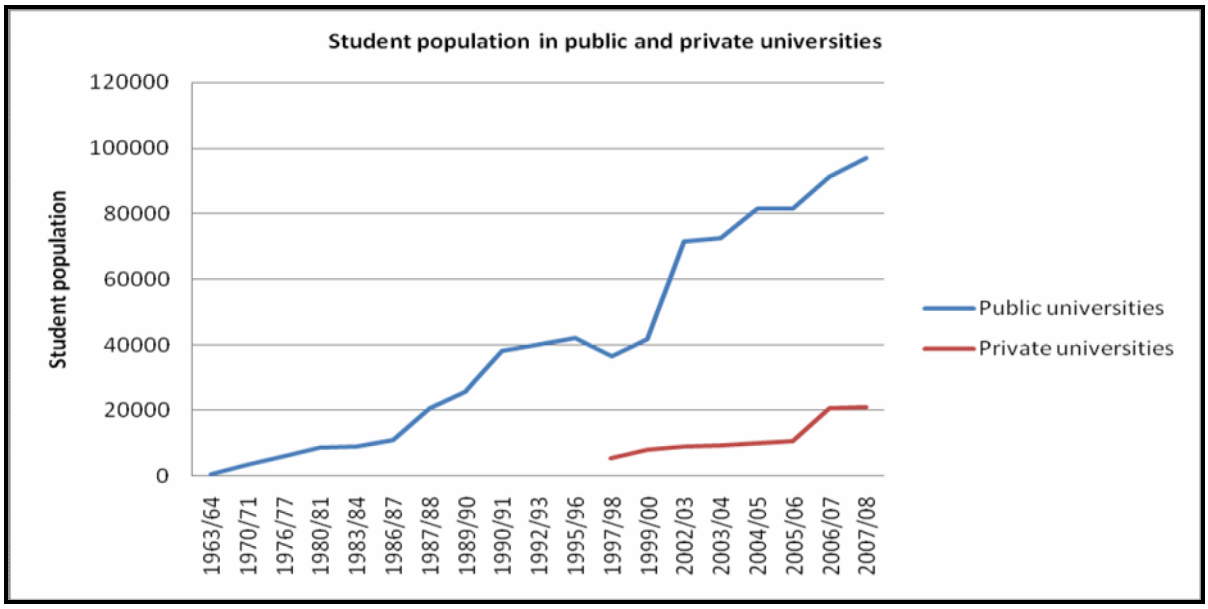
Where the universities could not fill positions in disciplines such as science, medicine and engineering, a recruitment team consisting of representatives from public universities and the government were sent on recruitment missions mainly to Europe and North America (Boit, 1998).

The third phase of university expansion (1991 to the present) began in 1991 when the government bowed to pressure from the Bretton Woods institutions to rationalise and control the growth of the universities. This led to the introduction of cost-sharing measures and the restriction of admission to 10,000 students per year (Republic of Kenya, 1994). These measures were introduced to contain unsustainable levels of public expenditure on higher education. The creation of more public universities was less hurried during this phase as compared to phase two with the creation of three universities in a span of 14 years.

Another contributory factor to university expansion is the increasing social demand for higher education whereby most Kenyans link university education with formal employment and increased status in the community (Nafukho, 1999). This association between higher education and economic mobility has pushed most parents to make substantial sacrifices to ensure their children obtain the necessary education (Hughes, 1994)

The rapid expansion of students' enrolment since independence is shown below.

Figure 3.1: Student population in public and private universities, 1963/64 – 2007/08



Source: Republic of Kenya, Statistical abstracts and Economic Surveys, from various years, Nairobi, Government printers.

3.5 Public expenditure on education

The financing of education in Kenya since independence has been the government's responsibility. However, two major factors influenced a change in the government's funding policy to universities. Firstly, the ideological shift in educational funding towards primary and secondary levels due to the perception that public investment in higher education yields lower returns compared to investment on primary and secondary education, resulted in the reduction of donor support for higher education (Kiamba, 2005). Secondly, economic decline occasioned by various internal and external factors which saw economic growth decline from 6.6% in 1973 (Republic of Kenya, 1999) to 4.2% in 1980 (Kimemia, 2000). As a result, the government in 1986 issued Sessional Paper No. 1 on *Economic Management for Renewed Growth* which saw the introduction of cost-sharing in most sectors of the economy. The aim was to reduce government support to the sectors expected to be self-sustaining (Republic of Kenya, 1986). The Sessional Paper criticised the high recurrent expenditure on education and recommended that control measures be taken to reduce these expenditures to manageable levels by putting a tight limit on ministry expenditure.

Subsequently, the government appointed a Presidential Working party on *Education*

and Training in 1988 to study the education sector and recommend ways of ensuring the delivery of services within the limits of the new economic conditions. The Report recommended the introduction of cost-sharing, which was accepted by the government in Sessional Paper No. 6 on *Education and Training for the next decade and beyond.* The report recommended that the government continues financing the provision of educational administration and professional services, while communities, parents and sponsors meet the cost of physical facilities, books, stationary and consumable materials.

According to Wangenge-Ouma (2008) the shift from free higher education to cost sharing did not bring about any major financial responsibilities on the part of the students and their parents. Instead, the government had to heavily subsidise the 'regular'[7] students who pay Kshs 16000 (US$ 203) per annum as tuition fees while the government pays universities Kshs. 120,000 (US$ 1518) per student per annum irrespective of the course of study (Kavulya, 2006). With the charges for food and accommodation being far below the market rate, the crisis in public universities deepened further.

Consequently, further structural adjustments were introduced in the 1991/92 fiscal year through the *Education Sector Adjustment Credit* (EDSAC) which, among other things, emphasised increased implementation of user fees, a freeze on employment and reduction in the admission of students to public universities. With the reduction of government expenditure, public universities were called upon to explore ways and means of financing university programmes partly with funds generated from sources other than the exchequer. The need for public universities to diversify their activities to include income generation was emphasised by the government in a speech by the Minister of Education at a Vice Chancellor's workshop at Egerton University, Njoro in 1994:

> This is a turning point in the development of our public universities, where they are being called upon to adopt business-like financial management styles. It is also a point in time when universities have to plan well ahead about resources expected to be forthcoming from sources other than the exchequer...

[7] These are students admitted on strict, merit-based based system by the Joint Admissions Board, pay subsidised fees and are awarded government bursaries

> [The] time has come to seriously take account of the universities potential to generate income internally...income from such sources should be exploited and treated as definite sources of university revenue (Kiambi, 2004, p. 55).

The deep financial crisis that public universities were facing was further worsened by an academic staff strike during the 1994/1995 academic year over poor terms and conditions of service and the government's refusal to register academic staff union (Kiamba, 2004, 2005). The strike which lasted six months and resulted in the subsequent closure of the universities propelled the universities to explore alternative ways of generating alternative income to meet their budgetary deficits.

This marked the beginning of the era of marketisation of higher education and the introduction of the "entrepreneurial university" (Kiamba, 2004). This involved identifying university resources and their commercial exploitation and vigorous marketing their core functions – teaching, research and services. The most popular modes of income generation were commercialisation of services and privatisation of education (Kiamba, 2005; Wangenge-Ouma, 2008). Commercialisation involves ventures such as consultancies, commercial farming, hospitals, seminars and workshops, restaurants and cafeterias among others. Privatisation involves the admission of privately sponsored fee-paying students referred to as 'parallel' or 'module II'[8] who pay fees at the market rate. This introduced the 'dual track' concept whereby regular students study alongside the parallel students (Kiamba, 2005; Wangenge-Ouma, 2008).

The government's budgetary expenditure on the Public Sector is shown in Table 3.1 below. The Government's Appropriation Accounts and Budgetary Estimates reveal that the largest percentage share of the government expenditure goes to servicing public debt. Budgetary allocation to education has ranged between 14% and 20% over the last three decades, despite growing students' population.

[8] These programmes cater for students who do not get government bursaries and therefore pay fees at the market rate. These programmes run in the evenings and weekends.

Table 3.1: Government budgetary expenditure on the public sector, 1976/77 - 2007/08 (%)

	General administration	Defence /Internal security	Education	Health	Economic services	Public debt
1976/77	15.3	10.5	**19.7**	7.2	31.6	13.5
1978/79	14.9	15.4	**15.8**	6.1	32.8	13.0
1980/81	16.9	9.20	**18.1**	6.7	30.4	16.5
1984/85	14.0	7.50	**17.5**	5.4	25.9	26.3
1988/89	13.8	4.80	**18.1**	4.8	20.9	35.1
1995/96	9.7	9.40	**20.6**	4.9	15.1	37.7
1996/97	12.9	10.9	**18.2**	5.8	14.4	38.1
1997/98	7.6	6.90	**14.7**	4.1	8.20	56.4
1998/99	11.1	9.20	**19.5**	4.3	11.2	40.4
1999/00	12.3	10.4	**21.1**	4.1	12.5	35.3
2000/01	16.0	11.6	**18.6**	4.4	14.9	30.0
2001/02	10.9	11.5	**17.9**	4.9	12.5	37.0
2003/04	10.6	12.8	**20.8**	4.1	13.7	30.4
2005/06	14.4	13.4	**20.5**	6.6	15.7	22.3
2006/07	15.4	12.5	**19.7**	5.9	16.2	19.9

Source: Republic of Kenya (1976 - 2007) Statistical abstracts

Table 3.2: Budgetary expenditure of the Ministry of Education, 1996/97 - 2007/08 (%)

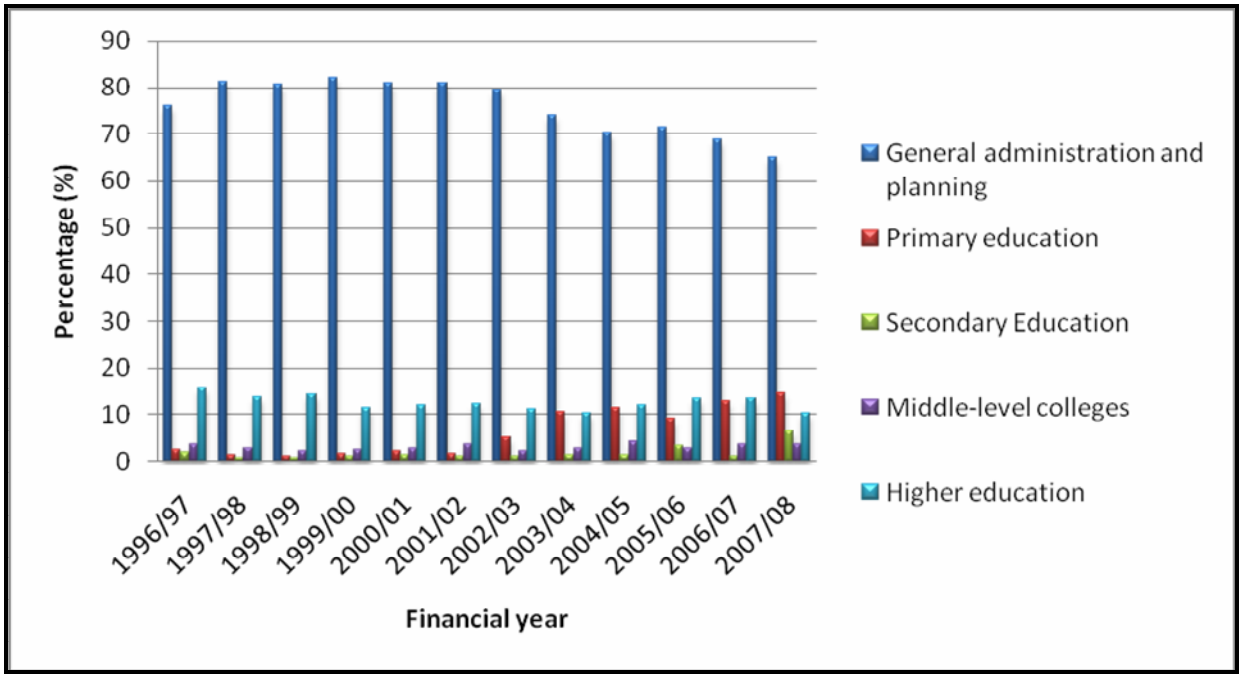
	General administration and planning	Pre-primary and primary education	Secondary Education	Middle-level colleges	Higher education
1996/97	75.8	2.6	1.8	3.6	15.8
1997/98	81.0	1.5	0.75	2.9	13.6
1998/99	80.6	1.4	0.69	2.3	14.2
1999/00	82.1	2.2	1.2	2.5	11.4
2000/01	80.7	2.7	1.4	2.8	11.9
2001/02	80.8	2.1	1.2	3.6	12.3
2002/03	79.5	5.5	1.1	2.3	11.2
2003/04	73.9	11.1	1.4	2.8	10.4
2004/05	70.7	14.5	1.4	4.3	12.1
2005/06	71.3	9.2	3.3	2.8	13.4
2006/07	68.8	12.9	1.1	3.7	13.5
2007/08	65.1	14.7	6.4	3.6	10.3

Source: Republic of Kenya (2001, 2003, 2007, 2008) Economic Survey

Further analysis of the Ministry of Education's expenditure, as shown in Table 3.2 reveals that over 70% of the budgetary expenditure was consumed by General

administration and planning. Although higher education consumed an average of 12.5% of the ministry's expenditure, the introduction of Free Primary Education in 2002 and thereafter the introduction of Free Secondary tuition in 2005/06 have seen a major shift in funding from higher education. This is consistent with studies which have shown that over the last 25 years, public funding per student in sub-Saharan Africa, has declined from an average of Sh500, 000[9] a year to a low Sh78, 000 (Kigotho, 2008b).

Figure 3.2: Trends in expenditure by the Ministry of Education from 1996/97 -2007/08



3.6 Challenges and constraints facing higher education

The problems facing public universities in Kenya have originated from inadequate financial resources and rapid expansion. These factors have impacted negatively on the physical and human resources and the provision of quality services, as discussed below.

3.6.1 Educational environment

To offer good quality education, higher education institutions and programmes must

[9] 1 USD = 77.16 Kenya shillings (currency rates as of 19th Febuary, 2010)

be adequately funded, with the core requirements of safe, environmentally friendly and easily accessible facilities; well motivated and competent personnel; and up-to-date books and other learning materials. However, Kenyan universities, like many African universities, have been battling with declining funds amid increased enrolments. Over the last four decades, the number of students has risen from 571 students to more than 97,000 at present in its seven public universities. This has resulted in major congestion of the physical facilities such as lecture rooms, laboratories, libraries and halls of residence; cutback in staff development programmes and research funds; reduction in books, teaching materials and simple laboratory equipments and supplies for research and teaching (Banya and Elu, 2001; Mutula, 2002; Teferra and Altbach, 2004). In addition, employees are demoralised, which has affected efficiency in the management of resources (Republic of Kenya, 1998; Salmi, 1991; Ndirangu, 1995).

The poor learning conditions have contributed to increased student disturbances, often resulting in unscheduled closures of the universities which have disrupted academic programmes and completion dates. As a result, academics have little or no time for research or post-graduate supervision, as they have to teach throughout the year. With the policy of "publish or perish", most of the lecturers' chances of upward mobility have been seriously affected, further adding to their discontent. Ajayi, Ade, Goma, and Johnson (1996) argue that most higher education institutions in Africa must contend with several interrelated problems whose combined effects threaten to destroy them. According to Ajayi *et al.*,

> ... cruel winds of stringency, consequent upon the severe economic recession of the past two decades or so and the prevailing unjust economic order, continue to blow unabated across the African continent with devastating consequences for the universities and other institutions of higher learning in most African countries... (p.145)

3.6.2 Problems of quality and relevance

Although academic quality is an important component of higher education, public universities in Kenya have had to relegate this important element to the periphery due

to severe budget cuts and high student enrolments (Nyaigotti-Chacha, 2001). As a result, insufficient physical facilities, limited and obsolete library resources, outdated curricula, insufficient and unqualified teaching staff, poorly prepared secondary students and staff retention problems have contributed to inefficiency and falling academic standards (Saint, 1992; Tetty, 2006; Yizengaw, 2008). Further, the reduction of a semester from 15 weeks to 11 weeks to cater for three semesters in a year has affected the effective completion of the syllabus (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). The outcome of these concerns has been high failure rates among the students, poor quality of examination answers and a decline in the quality of verbal and written communication (Amutabi, 2003; Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007).

The advent of the self-sponsored academic programmes has also brought into the spotlight the issue of quality in public universities (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). Areas of concern include the standards of newer programmes being mounted in centres outside the universities; the less competitive entry requirements of self sponsored students' vis-à-vis regular students and lecturers paying more attention to teaching the self-sponsored programmes at the expense of the regular students. Inappropriate curricula that are unrelated to market needs have also brought into question the relevance of university education (Mungai, 1995; Republic of Kenya, 1998; Ndirangu, 1995). Mungai (1995) attributes the high level of unemployment among university graduates to the type of curriculum being offered by the public universities, which has been seen as being too theoretical with little practical orientation.

Consequently, public universities have ranked poorly among top world universities, with the University of Nairobi being the only Kenyan public university to appear among the top 5,000 universities at position 4,046 (Webometrics, 2009). Further, employers, through the Federation of Kenyan Employers, have expressed their concerns about the ability of university graduates to respond flexibly and competently to the responsibilities with which they are entrusted (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007).

3.6.3 The management of human resources

Low staff morale and motivation has been a problem afflicting most universities in Africa and Kenya in particular, leading to the loss of qualified personnel (Tetty,

2006). This has mainly been as a result of unsatisfactory monetary and non-monetary conditions in the workplace. Public universities in Kenya have almost exclusively depended on the government for remunerating their employees, leading to a situation where employees are not paid as well as their counterparts in the more developed societies or in the private universities (See pay structure in Appendix A). This has seen many academics decamp to the private sector or other countries in search of better pay, thus affecting the teaching needs of Kenyan universities (Ndirangu, 1995; Tetty, 2006; Yizengaw, 2008).

The problems of brain drain is not unique to Kenya alone, with Africa losing over 20,000 professionals annually since 1990 as they seek better employment prospects in the West and other relatively prosperous African countries such as South Africa, Botswana and Rwanda (Kigotho, 1994; Ndirangu, 1995; World Bank, 1995; Tebeje, 2005). As a result, Africa spends about $4 billion annually to recruit and pay over 100,000 expatriates to work in Africa and yet fails to spend a proportional amount to recruit the hundreds of thousands of African professionals working outside Africa or to pay African professionals working in Africa equivalent rates to similarly qualified expatriates (Tebeje, 2005).

Academic employees who are unable to get attractive opportunities elsewhere are actively involved in professional and non-professional activities within and outside their universities to supplement their income (Abagi, 1998; Tetty, 2006). These academics only go to their universities to do their duties of teaching, proof-reading exams, invigilation and mark the exams and barely have time for research, preparation and interaction with students. A World Bank study on public university financing found a similar situation with more than 40% of senior academic staff working part-time in private universities, non-governmental organisations and private companies (Kigotho, 2000).

There have also been problems in the effective utilisation of administrative employees who constitute about 70% of the total workforce in public universities (Abagi, 1998; Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). Prior to the reforms in the higher education sector in 2000/2001 resulting in the retrenchment of 3,203 non-teaching employees, public universities were overstaffed by administrative staff whose ratio to students stood at

1:3 as compared to a ratio of 1:12 of teaching staff to students (Kigotho, 2000; Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). Banya and Elu (2001) found similarly high students: non-teaching staff ratios of 1:4 in other African countries. These contrasts sharply with the situation in private universities in Kenya with a 1:21 academic: student ratio and a 1:11 non-teaching staff: student ratio, which highlight the efficient utilization of human resources in the private universities (Wesonga, Ngome, Ouma-Odero and Wawire, 2007).

Overstaffing in public universities, especially among the administrative staff categories has been blamed on political patronage which compelled university authorities to employ more workers than they actually needed (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). Such high numbers of non-teaching personnel in most African universities, which translate to high recurrent expenditure, take away crucial, scarce resources from basic university functions of teaching and research (Teferra and Altbach, 2004).

3.6.4 Research and Publications

One of the primary objectives of universities is to engage in high-level research, not only to provide basic and advanced information and technology to government and industry, but also as a source of revenue for their universities. However, research programmes in Kenyan university are almost non-existent due to financial constraints and the non-prioritisation of research by the government (Mutula, 2002). It has been reported that sub-Saharan Africa devotes less than 0.3% of its GDP to research and development (Kigotho, 2008a). As a result, research and publishing activities in Africa is at a critical point due to scarcity of laboratory equipments and other scientific paraphernalia; poor and dilapidated libraries and uncompetitive salaries of academic and research staff (Teferra and Altbach, 2004). Further, publishing in reputable journals for most academics is a nightmare. Ajayi *et al*. (1996) reports that most university presses in Africa (Kenya included) have been victims of economic squeeze while publishing abroad is not easy and can be subjected to agonising delays. As a result, Africa has been ranked last in the world in terms of research, with only a 0.2% contribution to world research and 1.4% of the world's scholarly publications (Hoffman, 1995/96; Kigotho, 2008a). In addition, the quality of research produced from African universities has been found to be rather poor, not only due to lack of

adequate facilities, but also because the academics have not been well-prepared to do research (Weidman, 1995; Yizengaw, 2008). Ironically, Tebeje (2005) observes that there are more African scientists and engineers in North America than in the entire African continent.

3.6.5 Gender Equity

The participation of women in higher education (i.e. both as students and employees) is very low in Kenya, in large part, because of socio-cultural factors that emphasize women's roles as wife and mother. Sex role socialisation and sex stereotyping have had a profound influence on the participation of women in university management and the girl-child's access to education (Mulinge, 2001; Onsongo, 2003, 2004; Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). Consequently, the representation of female students is much lower in public universities where they make up about 30% of the student population as compared with over 53% in private universities (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007; Wesonga *et al.*, 2007). The increasing number of females attending private universities reflects the limited number of females attaining the entry cut-off points into public universities (Abagi, Nzomo and Otieno, 2005). Further, gender imbalances have been found in most science and technology-based programmes due to gender stereotyping (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). For example, JKUAT recorded the lowest enrolment of female students (i.e. 19%) because nearly all its courses are science and engineering-based while Kenyatta university had the highest female enrolment (i.e. 38%) with most females concentrated in traditionally "female" subject areas such as social sciences, arts, education, languages and home science among others (UNESCO, 2002; Onsongo, 2004; Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). This gender imbalance in academic programmes in tertiary institutions is not unique to Kenya. UNESCO (2002) found a similar pattern of women under-representation in science-based studies in some developed countries (i.e. Australia, Canada, France, Germany and United Kingdom) ranging between 21% to 30% and much lower in African countries, for instance, Zimbabwe (14%), Malawi (15%) and Uganda (17%).

Gender disparity has also been found in teaching and management in Kenyan universities. Onsongo (2003, 2004) in a study of the management profiles of six public universities and four private universities, found under-representation of female

employees in the management structures of these universities. For instance, out of 10 Vice Chancellors, only one was female[10] (from a private university) while out of 295 Heads of Departments, only 52 were female. Onsongo also found that most of the female Deans, Directors of Schools and Institutes and Heads of Departments were in "traditionally feminine areas" such as home economics, languages, history, religious studies among others. UNESCO (2002) found that the proportion of women decreased significantly up the academic and management ladders with no significant differences in positions of professorship in both developed and developing countries. Studies have found that a large proportion of female academics were concentrated in the lower ranks of the hierarchy while fewer female administrators were found in the higher ranks of management (UNESCO, 2002; Onsongo, 2004; Teferra and Altbach, 2004). Consequently, women's earnings have been found to average only around 70% of men's earnings as a result of glass ceiling, access discrimination and non-supportive work environment (Hagedorn, 1996; MacLeod, 2001; Ramamoorthy and Flood, 2004).

3.7 Private universities in Kenya

Private universities in Kenya have gained increasing popularity as alternative providers of university education due to declining quality in public universities and their inability to cope with the demand for higher education. Private universities are therefore, expected to continue growing since it is unlikely that the government will be able to fund future expansion of public universities considering the financial challenges it is facing.

3.7.1 Growth and development

Public universities in Kenya monopolised the provision of higher education from independence until the last two decades when it experienced unprecedented growth of private universities. This growth was facilitated by a number of policies instituted by the World Bank in 1991. Firstly, the government was prevailed upon to put a ceiling on growth in public universities to 3% per annum until 2017 and restrict admission to 10,000 students annually (Abagi *et al.*, 2005). Consequently, a large client base was

[10] Since the study was carried out female vice chancellors have been appointed at Kenyatta University and Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology

created for private universities as public universities were unable to absorb all the qualifying candidates. Secondly, cutback on government expenditure to the public sector aimed at reducing fiscal deficit affected the ability of public universities to offer quality education. The result has been the loss of the glory that was once associated with public universities, marking for the first time a growing interest in private universities, which had previously been kept at the periphery by the government (Altbach, 1999; Mutula, 2002; Oketch, 2004). Thirdly, the shift in funding policy from higher education to basic education has meant that individuals are taking on the increased cost of higher education, thus making the private provision of higher education a necessity (Oketch, 2004; Abagi *et al*., 2005). .

Private universities in Kenya are established in accordance with the Universities Act, 1985 and the Universities (Establishment of Universities) Rules, 1989 and are accredited by the Commission for Higher Education (CHE). The establishment of CHE through an Act of Parliament in 1985 was a signal of the government's encouragement of private initiatives in the higher education sector. The government put in place policies to regularise the growth of private universities which include the establishment of appropriate accreditation and programme evaluation mechanisms; provision of technical assistance for curriculum development and institutional management; and avoidance of disincentives such as tuition price controls (World Bank, 1994a). Continued government support includes the provision of loans to needy students through the Higher Education Loans Board.

The establishment of private universities and colleges began in 1969 with the founding of the United States International University (USIU) in Nairobi, when it was granted a Presidential Charter by Kenya's first president making it the first private university in East Africa (USIU, 2006). USIU was issued a charter in 1999 after fulfilling all the requirements stated by CHE (Oketch, 2004; USIU, 2006). The rapid growth of private universities occurred from the 1990s and presently Kenya has 23 private universities as follows: 11 Chartered universities (i.e. fully accredited by CHE); four operating with Certificate of Registration, and eight operating with Letters of Interim Authority (CHE, 2008). By late 2002, 14 other institutions had submitted proposals for establishment as private institutions (Wesonga *et al*., 2007).

3.7.2 Factors leading to the proliferation of private universities

Although public universities in Kenya have been dominant (in terms of student population) since independence in the provision of higher education, the private universities now dominate in the number of institutions and account for about 20% of undergraduates nationally (Oketch, 2004; Abagi *et al*., 2005; Wesonga *et al*., 2007). In addition, enrolment rates in private universities has been growing steadily not only as a result of rising overall demand but also due to limited capacity and deteriorating conditions in the public universities. Several factors have contributed to the proliferation of private universities in Kenya.

3.7.2.1 Positive government policy towards private universities

The policy decision by the government to establish CHE by an Act of Parliament in 1985 enabling it to inspect and validate the provision of private higher education is an important indication of the government's commitment to encouraging the development of private universities. In addition, CHE no longer requires institutions to be affiliated to foreign universities for accreditation, thus side-stepping the lengthy procedure involving memorandums of understanding and associations (Oketch, 2004). As a result, Kenya has been lauded as one of the few countries in Africa with a large and well-developed system of private universities (Eisemon, 1992; World Bank, 1994; Varghese, 2004). Furthermore, the government's inability to satisfy demand for higher education has strengthened its resolve to encourage the continued growth of private higher education.

3.7.2.2 Social demand and its impact

Social demand for university education in Kenya has been on the increase due to its linkage with formal employment and prestige associate with being a graduate (Nafukho, 1999; Oketch, 2004). With only one university two decades after independence and an annual population growth rate of about 4% in the 1970s and 1980s, demand for university education overwhelmed the government's ability to cater for the higher education sector (Sifuna, 1998; Eshiwani, 1999; Oketch, 2003; 2004). This was made worse by a series of presidential directives in the late 1980s which resulted in two sets of double intakes and the lowering of minimum entry

points into the universities. To cater for this demand, four fully-fledged universities and several university colleges were created within one decade with student enrolment shooting from about 9,000 to over 40,000 students (Sifuna, 1998; Amutabi, 2003). The existing physical and human resources in these universities were overstretched leading to students learning on rotational basis and increase strikes, further delaying students' completion dates.

The problems created by unplanned expansions in public universities and the increasing demand for higher education pushed private universities from the periphery to the forefront (Oketch, 2004). The government, which was overwhelmed by the demand for higher education and crippling resources in public universities, relaxed its grip on the provision of higher education and encouraged the establishment of private universities in the 1990s. This led to the accreditation of University of East Africa, Baraton in 1992; Catholic University of East Africa, 1992; Daystar University, 1994; Scott Theological college, 1997 and United States International University, 1999 (Wesonga *et al*., 2007). As a result of unfavourable learning conditions in public universities, well-to-do families are opting to take their children to private universities where learning conditions are deemed to be favourable (Oketch, 2004).

3.7.2.3 Forces in the global and domestic scene

The continued expansion of private higher education in Kenya can be seen in the light of global trends. According to Blass (2001) the role of the university globally has changed from educating small privileged elite to educating more than a third of a country's population. Equally important, the domestic scene has seen the unprecedented growth of private academies at both primary and secondary school level which mostly cater for high-income Kenyans. Some of these academies offer foreign systems of education which give parents the option of sending their children abroad or to the private universities. In addition, the rapid growth in primary and secondary enrolments (especially in the light of free primary and secondary education) has created an additional demand for university education, further straining the existing resources in public universities.

The donor conditionalities of the 1990s which forced public universities to reduce their yearly intake of students in order to contain unsustainable government

expenditure on higher education, affected access to higher education (Ng'eno, 1996; Republic of Kenya, 1994). For example, in 2008, out of 276,239 candidates who sat for the KCSE, 82,134 attained university minimum entry points, while only 17,000[11] students secured admission to the public universities (KNEC, 2009). This means that about 6% of those who completed secondary school education will join public universities while about 20% of the qualified applicants receive government bursary. Unsuccessful applicants therefore have the option of joining public universities as self-sponsored students, foreign universities or private universities.

However, as the need for higher education continues to rise, some unscrupulous people are also taking advantage of desperate Kenyans by offering degree programmes without authority from the CHE. For example, in 2005 CHE moved to stop a graduation ceremony of a private institution in partnership with Newport International University which was neither accredited by CHE or any officially recognised agencies in the United States of America. Although the partner institution in Kenya defied the order and held the graduation ceremony, the CHE later declared the ceremony null and void, the degrees bogus, and the university illegal, meaning that the degrees are not recognised for further education or employment (Siringi, 2005; WENR, 2005; Otieno, 2007).

3.7.2.4 Declining confidence in public universities

Public confidence in state universities in Kenya has diminished considerably especially in the last two decades. Several factors have contributed to this diminishing confidence. Most important is the unplanned expansion in the mid-1980s in the face of reduced government budgetary allocation and above all, rigid academic programmes which are not responsive to market needs, thus affecting the employability of their graduates (Oketch, 2003). These challenges have increased interest in private universities as alternative providers of higher education because their learning environments are perceived to be more conducive. Since the survival of these private universities depends on student enrolment, they have endeavoured to have better, well-maintained physical facilities and offer market-oriented programmes

[11] The increase in the number of students from 10,000 students follows the opening of more university colleges and campuses in 2007 as follows: Egerton University (2); JKUAT (3); University of Nairobi (2); Kenyatta2) and Moi University (2).

that guarantee their graduates employment.

3.7.3 Challenges facing private universities.

The rapid growth and development of private universities and colleges in Kenya has had a tremendous impact on the higher education sector as they have been able to fill some of the gap left by the public universities (Eshiwani, 1999). However, in spite of the successes that they have achieved, private universities and colleges continue to face challenges some of which are discussed below.

3.7.3.1 Sustainable supply of students

Because private universities rely solely on tuition from students, a steady supply is essential. This is a likely challenge to those seeking to invest in the private higher education sector because supply is dependent on the resources of those doing the demanding (Oketch, 2003). Some of the private universities in Kenya remain relatively unknown and therefore, may be affected by a poor supply of students. However, unlike the more established universities, some of these institutions have remained small but draw comfort from serving specific missions. For example, the Scott Theological College has remained small and devoted to its religious programmes and is therefore not in competition for students with institutions such as USIU.

Private universities and colleges need to design innovative courses which will ensure a sustainable supply of students. Since students seek admission into private universities because they expect to be employed soon after graduation, these institutions offer market-oriented courses and are more responsive to changes in the employment market than public universities (Varghese, 2004). Graduates of these private universities are therefore likely to be assured of employment into lucrative private-sector jobs, multinational corporations among others. These chances are improved considerably if these institutions are foreign owned or affiliated to foreign universities. Therefore, increased demand for these private institutions will rise considerably if the unemployment rates of their graduates are constantly kept low (Varghese, 2004).

3.7.3.2 Curriculum/academic programmes

Public universities in Kenya offer a wide variety of courses, most of which are not responsive to the changes in the labour market (Eisemon, 1992). Private universities, on the other hand, offer fewer cutting-edge courses which are deemed to be market-oriented. Most of these universities offer programmes such as business administration, computer science, accountancy, marketing, economics, and communications among others as they require less investment in terms of infrastructure and equipment (Varghese, 2004; Abagi *et al*., 2005). However, the choice of courses that lean towards the humanities and theology have been at the expense of science and technology courses (e.g. medicine, pharmacy, computer studies, engineering or architecture), thus constraining the ability of private universities in meeting all the market needs and the needs of their prospective students. Attempts to introduce new market-driven courses such as software engineering, public health, business information technology among others have been hampered by short supply of qualified personnel and capital to set up the required infrastructure (Abagi *et al.*, 2005; Wesonga *et al*., 2007). In this regard, public universities have a greater advantage over private universities because they have longer traditions in offering these programmes and have the facilities and the resources, including the personnel and academics (Otieno, 2007).

3.7.3.3 University physical facilities

A university's physical facilities, including teaching and recreational facilities, determine student enrolment and the number of academic programmes it can offer (Wesonga *et al*., 2007). The learning environment in private universities have been found to be conducive for learning, unlike public universities which are faced by a myriad of problems which challenge their relevance and quality. Most of the private universities have modern infrastructures including well-stocked libraries, lecture rooms, staff offices, and modern students' recreational facilities, among others. These universities have also embraced information and communication technologies to enhance academic excellence and research (Mutula, 2002; Wesonga *et al*., 2007).

3.7.3.4 Quality

Private universities strive to provide high quality education which will ensure the employability of their graduates and thus justify the high tuition fees charged (Abagi *et al*., 2005). High quality education in private universities especially in the well-established universities has been attributed to good facilities and infrastructure such as up-to-date information technologies, stocked libraries with up-to-date books, modern teaching/learning techniques and adequate student/teacher interactions as compared to public universities whose quality has been on the decline in the last two decades (East African Standard, 2005). Close monitoring of private universities by CHE is also a quality assurance measure. In order to adhere to the strict standards and regulations set by CHE, private universities have had to continually update their programmes and adhere to the minimum entry requirements for admitting students as set by the government (Sifuna, 1998; Abagi *et al*., 2005).

Most of the private universities operate with few full-time staff and mainly rely on part-time lecturers from public universities. Some of the faculties and departments in these universities are headed by senior professors from public universities (Varghese, 2004; Oketch, 2004). According to Otieno (2007), a number of private universities hire public university lecturers to design their programmes in order to pass the CHE scrutiny and as such there is hardly any difference between public and private university curriculum content in some programmes. Therefore, relying on teaching staff from public universities is a good mechanism for ensuring quality in teaching and a saving on the heavy financial burden of paying full-time employees. Although the recruitment of part-time lecturers from public universities is perceived to enhance the quality of teaching in private universities, questions are bound to be raised regarding the declining quality of education in public universities (Varghese, 2004; Teferra and Altbach, 2004). However, Oketch (2004) argues that since the perception of declining quality at the public universities is not directly blamed on teaching but on poor teaching environment, the private universities with their small class sizes and cleaner classrooms and residential halls can claim enhanced quality. In addition, since most of the teaching staff from public universities rely heavily on these part-time jobs as means of supplementing their meagre earnings, they are likely to put in more effort to ensure they offer quality teaching.

3.7.3.5 Problems of finances

Financial constraints afflict both public and private universities in Kenya and this trend is similar in other African countries. According to Brown (2001) cited by Wesonga *et al* (2007, p. 177) the major financing challenges facing Kenyan universities is "how to do more with less" since available resources have been on the decline. Unlike public universities which receive a major share of their funding from the government, private universities rely mainly on tuition fees as their major source of funding and other minor sources such as donations, grants, student loans, and income from auxiliary enterprises. Heavy reliance on tuition fees means that student population in these private institutions must be adequate to enable them to survive (Varghese, 2004; Wesonga *et al*., 2007). Therefore, in order to continuously attract a large number of students, these institutions must offer courses that are popular on the employment market. Although the universities which were studied were reluctant to provide information on their financial expenditure, studies have shown that the highest proportion of the funds was consumed by recurrent expenditure, namely; salaries and allowances, books and journals, cafeteria and administrative costs with research consuming only one per cent of the expenditure (Abagi *et al*., 2005; Wesonga *et al*., 2007).

This heavy dependence on tuition fees coupled with a lack of alternative sources of income has made these institutions expensive and thus unaffordable for most Kenyans except for those from high socio-economic status, thus raising concerns about equity in these institutions (Varghese, 2004; Nyaigotti-Chacha, 2004). Bearing in mind that Kenya's per capita income is about US $680 (World Bank, 2008), the tuition fees levied by these private institutions are beyond the scope of most Kenyans. For instance, for the academic year 2005/2006, tuition at USIU stood at $1304 per trimester and an additional $1500 for administrative charges, accommodation, meals and medical fees. The African Nazarene University, which is much smaller than USIU, charges lower fees which are still unaffordable to most Kenyans. The university charges Kshs 15000 ($190) @6 units per trimester, KShs 25500 for administrative charges and Kshs 63000 for accommodation, meals and transport per trimester (African Nazarene, 2008). The fees levied by these private universities clearly support observation by Varghese (2004) that they are several times higher than

the country's per capita income.

To show its support for private initiative in higher education, the government through the Higher Education Loans Board (HELB) extended the loan facility to provided financial support to needy students in private universities (HELB, 2006). The board uses a means test to identify needy students and the loans range from Kshs. 35,000 to Kshs. 52,000. These loans however, have been found to be inadequate given the high tuition fee levels in private universities (Wesonga *et al*., 2007).

3.7.3.6 Competition from self sponsored degree programmes

The introduction of self sponsored degree programmes in the public universities has added competition in the higher education sector. To capture the existing market, public universities have altered their entry requirements thereby attracting applicants who would otherwise have joined the private universities (Nyaigotti-Chacha, 2002). Because of this, public universities have been criticised for commercialising education and in the process, lowering the standards of education (Kiprotich and Ayodo, 2005).

The chartered private universities are not likely to be affected by this competition because they have created a niche for themselves, but the same cannot be said of the smaller and less known private universities as most applicants are likely to prefer public universities which are still associated with academic excellence as compared to the less-known universities. Matters are made worse for these private universities by the fact that overseas universities have also started aggressive campaigns to recruit local students (Oketch, 2003; Otieno, 2007). In addition, the pool of part-time lecturers they have relied on from public universities has also been threatened because these lecturers are getting attractive packages from their universities for teaching these programmes (Mutula, 2002). These challenges from parallel programmes and foreign universities should be an impetus for the private universities to develop innovating programmes that are market-driven and meet the needs of their prospective students.

3.8 Conclusion

The importance of higher education for a country's development should not be downplayed, in terms of quality education, research and technological advancement.

The role of higher education institutions is to provide the economy with much needed human resources necessary for national development and to give the country an edge in global competition. However, if universities in Kenya are to achieve this feat, they require adequate financial and human resources. Unfortunately, the challenges facing public universities in Kenya are threatening the attainment of their stated missions and goals. Declining funds amid growing enrolment has negatively affected the quality and relevance of education in public universities. The physical facilities are overcrowded and run down; the workforce is demoralised due to a variety of monetary and non-monetary factors.

The chapter has also discussed the emergence of private universities as an alternative provider of higher education. This growth of private universities has been linked to the ideology of privatisation initiated by the World Bank through the SAPS that aimed at cutting back on public spending (Altbach, 1999). The private universities in Kenya have become central to meeting the increasing demand for higher education due to the inability of public universities to meet this demand. Graduates from private universities have been found to be more marketable as compared to their public university counterparts because these universities are considered to be more responsive to market needs and therefore tailor their courses to be more market-oriented unlike public universities which are more rigid. However, since private universities depend on tuition fees as their main source of funding, they have become the preserve of well-to-do Kenyans who are ready to invest heavily in their children's education.

The next chapter will discuss the approaches to employees work attitudes and outcomes, namely; organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions, which are the dependent variables of this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

Approaches to organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions

4.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews both empirical and theoretical literature on the key dependent variables of the study namely: organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The chapter begins by highlighting the development of organisational commitment; the definitions and conceptual approaches to understanding organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Finally, the chapter presents a review of organisational commitment and job satisfaction studies in higher education in developing and developed economies.

4.2 Development of organisational commitment

Organisational commitment as a concept began to gain increasing prominence over the past 30 years. At the start of the 20th century, the main focus for industrialists on the management of their employees was to maximise productivity and profits using scientific management as advocated by Frederick Taylor. Although Taylor's method resulted in increased productivity and higher pay, the workers and the labour unions opposed the approach as it resulted in high stress levels and job losses because employees were expected to surpass their normal work targets (Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert, 1995). Following the outcomes of the Hawthorne studies in the 1930s, managers realised that employees increased production as a result of the personal attention they received even when the working conditions were not good. Because of this outcome, organisational and social psychologists began to take a keen interest in employee behaviour resulting in several theories of employee motivation and satisfaction such as Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Herzberg's Two-Factor theory, McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y among others.

From the early 1970s, interest in the study of organisational commitment gained

momentum especially in America. This was spurred by a decline in productivity, a demoralised workforce and stiff competition that American industries were facing from foreign investors, especially Japan (Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1990). Interest in studies of organisational commitment developed from the successful Japanese management practices whereby employee commitment was seen to be a central driver to organisational success. Guest (1987) attributes the popularity of organisational commitment to its central position in the design of human resource management policies, whose aim is to maximise organisational integration, employee commitment, flexibility and quality of work.

4.3 Defining organisational commitment

Despite numerous articles that have been produced on the subject of organisational commitment, there has been lack of consensus on its definition (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Jaros *et al*., 1993; Coopey and Hartley, 1991). Organisational commitment has been variably and extensively defined, measured and researched, and the concept, as a result, has been criticised for lack of precision, giving rise to inconsistent results from various studies (Reichers, 1985; Meyer and Allen. 1997; Fenton-O'Creevy, Lydka and Morris, 1997). Mowday *et al*., (1982, p.20) report that as the area of organisational commitment grows and develops, "researchers from various disciplines ascribe their own meanings to the topic thereby increasing the difficulty involved in understanding the construct". The dimensionality of organisational commitment has also added to the confusion surrounding the definition and conceptualisation of organisational commitment (Fenton-O'Creevy *et al*., 1997; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). Some studies have conceptualised it as unidimensional (Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974; Wiener, 1982; Becker, 1960) while others as multi-dimensional (Allen and Meyer, 1990; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986).

Morrow (1983, p. 486) who found over 25 commitment-related concepts and measures reports that "the growth in commitment-related concepts has not been accompanied by a careful segmentation of commitment's theoretical domain in terms of intended meaning of each concept's relationship among each other". O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) also note that different terminologies have been used to describe the same basic phenomenon, such as identification with the organisation's goals and

values; involvement or loyalty to the organisation; affective or psychological attachment; and attachment to one's investment or "side-bets". They further attribute the lack of consensus to a failure by researchers to differentiate among the antecedents and consequences of organisational commitment, on the one hand, and the basis of attachment on the other. Further difficulties in defining commitment have resulted from concept redundancy since job, career, work, organisational and professional commitments have been fused into one concept (Coopey and Hartley, 1991). This has led to the assumption by many researchers that the organisation's goals and values were necessarily shared by all members of the organisation.

Further confusion has arisen from the existence of at least two approaches to defining commitment namely; a "psychological approach" and an "exchange approach" or what has been referred to as the attitudinal and behavioural schools of thought respectively (Stevens, Beyer and Trice, 1978; Scholl, 1981; Coopey and Hartley, 1991). For instance, Porter *et al.* (1974) defined commitment as a psychological attachment to the organisation's goals and values while Becker (1960) operationalised it as the cost associated with leaving the organisation.

Meyer and Allen (1991) in response to the confusion over the definitions and dimensionality of the construct, proposed a three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment in which they defined commitment to reflect a desire, a need and/or an obligation to maintain membership in the organisation (see definition in Chapter One, Section 1.1.1). Because of the lack of consensus over the definitions of organisational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997, p. 11) stated that,

> no definition is more 'correct' or universally accepted than the others. The definitions are different, however, and it can only confuse the issue if we speak of commitment without indicating which definition we are using.

For the purpose of this study, the three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment by Meyer and Allen (1991) will be used. This is because employees in an organisation may have different types of commitments tying them to their organisations which may not necessarily be affective or psychological in nature. For instance, due to poor economic performance in Kenya, most organisations over the past decade have carried out restructuring measures which have resulted in

redundancies. This has meant that most employees are not likely to change jobs due to the policy of "last in, first out". Such employees may therefore choose to remain in their universities due to lack of alternative employment or in order to secure their investments but not necessarily due to affective commitment. Consequently, the unidimensional approach by Porter *et al.*, (1974) was not suitable for this study. Mowday (1998, p. 390) one of the proponents of Porter's conceptualisation of organisational commitment, reported that:

> there was nothing wrong with Porter's decision to more narrowly focus on the more affective concept of commitment. From a practical standpoint, however, it is useful to recognize that the bonds that form between employee and organisations can range from instrumental to emotional. Identifying the different types of commitments suggest alternative management strategies leading to desired behaviours in the workplace.

4.4 Theoretical approaches to organisational commitment

Organisational commitment has been studied from different perspectives by various researchers. Some studies have used the social exchange theory to explain organisational commitment while others have used the attitudinal or behavioural approach. Some researchers, however, have claimed that organisational commitment cannot be studied without considering its multidimensional nature (Reichers, 1985). These different approaches to the study of organisational commitment are discussed below.

4.4.1 Social exchange theory

The exchange perspective views the employment relationship as consisting of social or economic exchanges (Aryee, Budhwar and Chen, 2002; Cropanzano, Rupp and Bryne, 2003). Economic exchange relationships involve the exchange of economic benefits in return for employees' effort and are often dependent on formal contracts which are legally enforceable. On the other hand, social exchanges are 'voluntary actions' which may be initiated by an organisation's treatment of its employees, with the expectation that the employees will be obligated to reciprocate the good deeds of the organisation (Blau, 1964; Aryee *et al.*, 2002; Gould-Williams and Davies, 2005).
The exchange approach view of organisational commitment posits that individuals

attach themselves to their organisations in return for certain rewards from the organisations (March and Simon, 1958; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Steers, 1977; Mowday *et al*., 1982; Farrell and Rusbult, 1981). According to this view, employees enter organisations with specific skills, desires and goals, and expect to find an environment where they can use their skills, satisfy their desires and achieve their goals. Perceptions of favourable exchange/rewards from the employees' viewpoint are expected to result in increased commitment to the organisation. Similarly, the more abundant the perceived rewards in relation to costs, the greater the organisational commitment. On the other hand, failure by the organisation to provide sufficient rewards in exchange for the employees' efforts is likely to result in decreased organisational commitment. This perspective is consistent with Becker's (1960) idea of calculative commitment where individuals' commitment to the organisation is in part, a function of accumulated investments.

From the perspective of the employee-employer relationship, social exchange theory suggests that employees respond to perceived favourable working conditions by behaving in ways that benefit the organisation and/or other employees. Equally, employees retaliate against dissatisfying conditions by engaging in negative work attitudes, such as absenteeism, lateness, tardiness or preparing to quit the organisation (Haar, 2006; Crede *et al*., 2007). It is therefore, expected that employees who perceive their working conditions to be negative and distressing, would reciprocate with negative work attitudes such job dissatisfaction, low morale and reduced organisational commitment, while those who perceive the workplace conditions as positive and challenging would reciprocate with positive work attitudes, such as high commitment, job satisfaction and low turnover (Cropanzano *et al*., 2003; Crede *et al*., 2007).

Another perspective of the social exchange theory is the norm of reciprocity which is based on two assumptions: "(a) people should help those who have helped them, and (b) people should not injure those who have helped them" (Gouldner, 1960, p. 171) Therefore, employees who perceive that the organisation values and treats them fairly, will feel obligated to "pay back" or reciprocate these good deeds with positive work attitudes and behaviours (Aryee *et al*., 2002; Gould-Williams and Davies, 2005; Parzefall, 2008). Studies have suggested that the norm of reciprocity is taught as a

moral obligation and then internalised by both parties (i.e. employees and employers) in an exchange relationship such that whoever receives a benefit feels obligated to repay it (Gouldner, 1960; Liden, Wayne, Kraimer and Sparrowe, 2003; Parzefall, 2008). This suggests that employees, who perform enriched jobs devoid of stress, receive attractive pay, job security and fair treatment from the organisation, are bound to express their gratitude for the support received by increasing their commitment to their organisation.

In summary, therefore, the exchange theory posits that commitment develops as a result of an employee's satisfaction with the rewards and inducements the organisation offers, rewards that must be sacrificed if the employee leaves the organisation.

4.4.2 Attitudinal commitment

This approach perceives commitment as an individual's psychological attachment to the organisation. Consistent with the unitarist values and philosophy of human resource management, attitudinal commitment posits that employees' values and goals are congruent with those of the organisation (Mowday *et al*., 1982; Armstrong, 2003). This approach, now commonly referred to as affective commitment, has dominated most of organisational commitment research for more than three decades (Kanter, 1968; Buchanan, 1974a; Porter *et al*., 1974; Mowday *et al*., 1982). Brown (1996, p.231) refers to it as a "set of strong, positive attitudes towards the organisation manifested by dedication to goals and shared sense of values" while Porter *et al*. (1974, p.604) defines it as:

> … the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation. Such commitment can generally be characterised by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in, and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; (c) a definite desire to maintain organisational membership.

Meyer and Allen (1991, p.67) defined it as an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. These definitions view organisational commitment as involving some form of psychological bond between the employees and the organisation. The resulting outcomes are increased work

performance, reduced absenteeism and reduced turnover (Scholl, 1981). Attitudinal commitment was measured using the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) designed by Porter *et al*. (1974).

The exchange theory has also been used to explain attitudinal commitment. According to the exchange perspective, employees exchange their identification, loyalty and attachment to the organisation in return for incentives from the organisation (Angle and Perry, 1981; Steers, 1977; Mowday *et al*., 1982). This implies that an individual's decision to become and remain a member of an organisation is determined by their perception of the fairness of the balance of organisational inducements and employee contribution. This approach therefore assumes that the employee develops attitudinal commitment when they perceive that their expectations are being met by the organisation.

Another dimension in explaining attitudinal commitment has been proposed by Wiener (1982). Wiener argues that an employee's commitment could be as a result of internalised normative pressures such as personal moral standards, and not rewards or punishments. Employees with strong normative commitment may feel a deep seated obligation "to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests" (Wiener, 1982, p. 421). Marsh and Mannari (1977, p. 59) describe an employee with lifetime commitment as one who "considers it morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives him over the years". Employees with strong normative commitment remain in the organisation because they feel they *ought* to do so (Allen and Meyer, 1996).

According to this approach, an employee willingly maintains membership purely for the sake of the organisation without asking for anything in return. Wiener (1982, p. 421) states that employees exhibit this positive behaviour because "they believe it is the 'right' and moral thing to do". These feelings of obligation to remain with an organisation result primarily from the internalisation of normative pressures exerted on an individual prior to entry into an organisation (familial or cultural socialisation) or following entry into the organisation (organisation socialisation) and not through rewards or inducements (Wiener, 1982; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Chen and Francesco, 2003). Feelings of indebtedness may also arise from an organisation's providing

certain benefits such as tuition reimbursement or training. This feeling of obligation may continue until the employee feels that he or she has "paid back" the debt (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Scholl, 1981; Chen and Francesco, 2003).

Wiener's proposal which stresses identification and loyalty to the organisation, has added a new dimension to the understanding of attitudinal commitment. Whereas in affective/attitudinal commitment an individual is attached to the organisation's goals and values, normative commitment arises from the congruency of the individual's and the organisation's goals and values, which aim to make the individual to be obligated to the organisation (Suliman and Iles, 2000b). Wiener (1982) further states that commitment increases when the internalised beliefs of an employee are consistent with the organisation's missions, goals, policies and style of operation. Studies that have used Meyer and Allen's (1991) affective and normative commitment scales have revealed that the two approaches have an inherent psychological overlap and that it may not be possible to feel a strong obligation to an organisation without also developing positive emotional feelings for it (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnysky, 2002; Jaros, 2007).

4.4.3 The Behavioural Approach

The behavioural approach views commitment as being purely instrumental and not psychological (Becker, 1960; Stevens *et al*., 1978). The assumption of this approach is that employees retain their membership with an organisation because the perceived cost of doing otherwise is likely to be high. Mowday *et al*. (1982, p. 26) has defined behavioural commitment as the "process by which individuals become locked into an organisation and how they deal with this problem". This approach is now referred to as continuance commitment.

This approach developed from Howard Becker's studies in 1960 which described commitment as a disposition to engage in "consistent line of activity" (namely maintaining membership in the organisation) resulting from the accumulation of 'side bets' which would be lost if the activity was discontinued (Becker, 1960, p. 33). Kanter (1968, p. 504) referred to it as "profit associated with continued participation and 'cost' associated with leaving" the organisation. In this regard, commitment arises

from the accumulation of some investments or side-bets tying the individual to a specific organisation, which would otherwise be lost if the activity or membership to the organisation were discontinued.

Becker (1960) argues that over a period of time, certain costs accrue which make it more difficult for the person to disengage from a course of activity such as working for a particular organisation or pursuing a certain occupational career. The greater the costs and investments which accrue, the more difficult disengagement becomes. He termed these costs as "side-bets". These "side bets" or investments may relate to one's education, marital status, promotion, pension fund, organisational specific skills and other factors which may be perceived as rewards or sunk costs in the particular organisation, hence rendering other job opportunities unacceptable.

According to this approach, individuals may be unwilling to quit their organisations lest they be perceived as "job hoppers" (Reichers, 1985). Employees therefore make side bets by staking their reputation for stability on the decision to remain in the organisation. Organisations have also been found to make side bets for employees using practices that lock them into continued membership in the organisation through rapid promotion, non-investment pension plans, organisation-specific training among others. However, Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin and Jackson (1989) caution that such tactics by the organisation may not instil in employees the desire to contribute to organisational effectiveness. Instead, some employees may find that they have little desire to remain with the organisation but cannot afford to do otherwise. Such employees may be motivated to do little more than perform at the minimum level required to maintain the job they have become dependent on. Organisations should therefore foster affective commitment in their employees rather than continuance commitment since employees who value their association with the organisation will not only remain in the organisation but work towards its success.

The attitudinal, normative and behavioural approaches to commitment represent what is now referred to as affective, normative and continuance commitment in the contemporary commitment literature. The attitudinal and normative approach describes commitment as an emotional attachment, involvement, identification and loyalty that the employee has towards the organisation while behavioural commitment

relates to an employee's evaluation of the costs likely to be incurred by leaving the organisation. Most of the commitment literature advocates for the attitudinal (affective) commitment which inculcates desirable work attitudes in the employees. Such employees are predicted to be high performers, register less absenteeism and turnover less (Meyer and Allen, 1997). On the other hand, behavioural (continuance) commitment has been criticised for failing to lead to positive work attitudes since the employee only retains membership with the organisation to safeguard their investments (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

Although past researchers conceptualised organisational commitment as a unidimensional construct, studies have shown that it is a multidimensional construct (Reichers, 1985; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997).

4.4.4 Multi-dimensional approach

Interest in the study of the multidimensionality of organisational commitment has been as a result of two factors. Firstly, previous studies on organisational commitment have been criticised for failing to investigate commitment as a construct that is distinct from other psychological concepts (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). This is despite studies showing that one's commitment to an organisation can result from value congruence, financial investments, effective reward and control systems or a simple lack of opportunities (Becker, 1960; Wiener, 1982).

Secondly, although attitudinal or behavioural approaches explained different concepts of commitment (i.e. psychological attachment, loyalty and costs attached to leaving the organisation), Mowday *et al*. (1982) found that the two approaches were not mutually exclusive but interrelated. According to Mowday and colleagues, there is an ongoing cyclical relationship between these two types of commitment whereby high levels of attitudinal commitment leads to committing behaviours which in turn reinforce commitment attitudes. Similarly, Coopey and Hartley (1991) suggest that the two approaches could be integrated into a single approach which recognises that commitment can develop either through affect or through behaviour and that each may reinforce the other.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) also report that the two approaches are not entirely distinguishable concepts and that the measurement of each contains elements of the other. For instance, an employee may be drawn into the organisation for exchange reasons (calculative commitment) but later develop attitudes consistent with maintaining membership (attitudinal commitment). Alternatively, a person might join an organisation because of attitudinal commitment but continue to stay because of accumulated side-bets resulting in calculative commitment (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005). In their support for the inter-relationship between attitudinal and behavioural commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 62) report that, unlike Porter and colleagues who restricted commitment to reflect only a psychological state, they

> … incorporate both the attitudinal and behavioural approach and their complementary relationship... that this psychological state need not be restricted to value and goal congruence ... that it can reflect a desire, a need and/or an obligation to maintain membership in the organisation.

Although studies on the multidimensionality of organisational commitment began to gain prominence from the early 1990s, its roots date back to work done by Kelman (1958) on attitude change. Kelman argues that an individual can accept influence in three different ways, namely;

(a) **Compliance** which occurs when "an individual accepts influence because he hopes to achieve a favourable reaction from another person or group" (p.53). In this case, the individual adopts the behaviour in order to gain specific rewards or approval but not necessarily because he/she shares in the goals or beliefs of the organisation. This is similar to continuance commitment.

(b) **Identification** which occurs when "an individual accepts influence because he wants to establish or maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship to another person or group" (p.53). This means that an individual may feel proud to be a part of a group, respecting its values and accomplishments. This is similar to affective commitment.

(c) **Internalisation** which occurs when "an individual accepts influence because the content of the induced behaviour-the ideas and actions of which it is composed-is intrinsically rewarding. He adopts the induced behaviour because it is congruent with his value system" (p. 53). The individual accepts the influence because it is similar to his/her own values. This is similar to normative commitment. Identification and internalisation dimensions of commitment are similar as they concern employees'

psychological state and value systems. Although Kelman's research generated interesting ideas on employees' behaviour, researchers did not follow up on this line of thought until three decades later.

The first study that explored the multidimensionality of organisational commitment were carried out by Meyer and Allen (1984) who adopted Becker's (1960) side bet theory by introducing the concept of continuance commitment alongside the concept of affective commitment. Reichers (1985) in a review of 32 commitment studies, did not find a consistent definition of commitment. However, from these studies, Reichers (1985, p.468) classified commitment into three categories:

a) **Side-bets** which suggest that organisational commitment is a function of the rewards and costs associated with organisational membership. These typically increase as tenure in the organisation increases.

b) **Attributions** whereby commitment is a binding of the individual to behavioural acts that results when individuals attribute an attitude of commitment to themselves after engaging in behaviours that are volitional, explicit and irrevocable.

c) **Individual/organisational goal congruence** where commitment occurs when individuals identify with and extend effort towards organisational goals and values.

In addition, Reichers found that organisations comprised various "coalitions and constituencies" (such as top management, work groups, co-workers, supervisors, customers/clients) each with its own goals and values that may or may not be compatible with the goals of the organisation. As a result, organisational commitment can best be understood as a collection of multiple commitments to the goal orientations of multiple work groups that constitute the organisation. Reicher's review provided guidelines for the future direction on the study of multidimensionality of organisational commitment by categorising commitment into three dimensions.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) who adapted Kelman's (1958) work on attitude and behavioural change, argued that although commitment reflected the psychological bond that ties the employee to the organisation, this bond can take three distinct forms, namely, compliance, identification and internalisation. According to O'Reilly and Chatman (p.493) compliance occurs simply to gain specific rewards and not because of shared beliefs; internalisation occurs when the values of the individual and

the organisation are the same; and identification arises from being part of a group, respecting its values and accomplishments without the individual adopting them as his or her own. The study found that identification and internalisation were negatively related to turnover intentions, while compliance was positively related to employee turnover. Following up on Meyer and Allen's (1984) study, McGee and Ford (1987) found that continuance commitment was bi-dimensional consisting of 'high personal sacrifice' and 'low perceived alternatives'.

The current development in multidimensional commitment is credited to studies carried out by Allen and Meyer (1990). From a review of several organisational commitment studies, they concluded that it consisted of three general themes namely; affective attachment to the organisation; perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation; and obligation to remain with the organisation. These themes became known as affective, continuance and normative commitment respectively. According to Allen and Meyer (1990, p. 4), "the 'net sum' of a person's commitment to the organisation … reflects each of these separable psychological states" since an employee can experience each of these psychological states with varying degrees, for instance, a strong need and obligation to remain in the organisation but no desire to do so.

Allen and Meyer (1990) developed measurement scales for organisational commitment which consisted of 24 items measuring the three components of commitment (eight items for each) and had acceptable internal consistency (i.e. cronbach alpha coefficient) for each dimension as follows: Affective Commitment Scales (ACS) $\alpha = 0.87$; Continuance Commitment Scales (CCS) $\alpha = 0.75$; and Normative Commitment Scales (NCS) $\alpha = 0.79$. CCS was found to be independent of ACS and NCS while ACS and NCS were significantly correlated. Allen and Meyer also found that the link between commitment and on-the-job behaviour such as turnover varied depending on each form of commitment. They concluded that this distinction would enable organisations to predict which of their employees were likely to remain in the organisation and contribute effectively to its success and those who were likely to remain and contribute little. Although Allen and Meyer's (1990) 24-item commitment scales have been used extensively, concerns were raised about the high correlations between affective and normative commitment with some researchers

questioning the logic of retaining normative commitment as a separate scale (Ko, Price and Mueller, 1997). In an attempt to clarify the distinction between affective and normative commitment, Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) revised all the three scales resulting in the reduction of the scale items from eight to six items per dimension. The revision of the normative commitment scale was most extensive as it had originally been designed to capture Wiener's (1982) work on the internalisation of social or cultural pressures about loyalty rather than employees obligation to the organisation regardless of the origin of this obligation (Meyer *et al*., 2002; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Jaros, 2007). However, despite this revision, Meyer *et al*. (2002) found that the correlations between affective and normative commitment in the original 8-items (p = .54) and the revised six-item scales (p^{12} = .77) were still considerably high.

Since the development of the multidimensional commitment by Allen and Meyer (1990), various studies in American and other Western contexts have been carried out using the three-dimensional organisational commitment measures (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Vandenberghe, Stinglhamber, Bentein and Delhaise, 2001; Meyer *et al*., 2002). This approach is also increasingly gaining support in various non-Western cultural contexts (Suliman and Iles, 2000; Ko *et al*., 1999; Wasti, 2003; Cheng and Stockdale, 2003). Some researchers have suggested that this development is likely to bring to an end the disappointing and inconsistent results often reported in organisational commitment research (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Brown, 1996; Suliman and Iles, 2000b).

Several other studies have identified and measured different forms of commitment (Angle and Perry, 1981; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Jaros *et al*., 1993). For example, Jaros *et al*. (1993) referred to the three dimensions of commitment as affective, moral and continuance commitment while Mathieu and Zajac (1990) referred to two dimensions of commitment as attitudinal and calculative commitment. The use of different labels and measurement scales to examine similar commitment constructs (e.g. calculative commitment and continuance commitment) is likely to cause confusion and give inconsistent results. Consequently, Meyer and Allen (1997) have advised researchers to be aware of the differences in the conceptualisation and

[12] p = weighted average corrected correlation

measurement of organisational commitment.

In summary, research studies have shown that organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct. For the purpose of this research, organisational commitment consists of three dimensions, namely; affective commitment which reflects employees' psychological attachment and identification with their universities; normative commitment which reflects loyalty and moral obligation to remain in the university; and continuance commitment which is the recognition of the costs associated with leaving the university.

4.5 Concept of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the most heavily researched employee attitudes over the last 50 years (Rayton, 2006). Locke (1976, p. 1300) defined it as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one's job or job experiences". It is an affective response to specific aspects of the job and plays a role in enhancing employee commitment to an organisation. Studies have shown that employee absenteeism, turnover and other behaviours are related to a person's satisfaction with his or her job and the organisation (Vroom, 1964).

Several theories have been used by researchers to explain the concept of job satisfaction. These theories fall in two groups, namely process and content theories. Content theories attempt to identify the factors which contribute to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. These theories include Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1954), Herzberg's 'two factor theory' (1959) and McGregor's 'Theory X and Y' (1960). On the other hand, process theories attempt to describe the interaction among variables in their relationship to job satisfaction. These theories include equity theory, expectancy theory and goal setting theory among others.

Studies have shown that job satisfaction is a multidimensional construct consisting of intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction (Maidani, 1991; Volkwein and Zhou, 2003). Intrinsic aspects of the job comprise 'motivators' or 'job content' factors such as feelings of accomplishment, recognition, autonomy, achievement, advancement among others. Extrinsic aspects of the job, often referred to as 'hygiene'

factors are job context factors which include pay, security, physical working conditions, company policies and administration, supervision, hours of work, union relations with management among others. Herzberg found that hygiene factors were mainly disruptions in the external work context while motivators dealt with internal states of the mind (Smerek and Peterson, 2007). Most studies have found that job satisfaction is influenced by an array of personal and job characteristics such as age, gender, tenure, autonomy, teamwork, relationships with co-workers and supervisors, job variety, satisfaction with pay, training among others (Volkwein and Parmley, 2000; Lambert, 2003; Volkwein and Zhou, 2003; Lambert, 2004; Lambert, Hogan and Griffin, 2007). Stressful work conditions were found to negatively affect employees' job satisfaction (Volkwein and Zhou, 2003; Ngo *et al*., 2005; Lambert *et al*., 2007).

4.5.1 Differences in job Satisfaction and organisational Commitment

Although organisational commitment and job satisfaction are similar as attitudinal or affective constructs, several differences have been found between the two constructs (Mowday *et al*., 1982). First, job satisfaction refers to the degree to which individuals "like" or are "happy" with their work, while commitment refers to the degree of "attachment" or "loyalty" to the organisation (Mottaz, 1987, p.543). Second, organisational commitment is a more global attitude which portrays an employee's attachment and identification with the goals and values of the organisation as a whole, while job satisfaction represents an employee's attachment to the job (or certain aspects of one's job) which is part of the organisation (Mowday *et al*., 1979, 1982). Third, development of employees' commitment towards the organisation takes more time and effort as compared to the time required to build job satisfaction (Rifai, 2005). Whereas job satisfaction may be affected by day-to-day events in the workplace or tangible aspects of the work environment such as pay, supervision, working hours, promotions among others, commitment attitudes develop more slowly over time as employees evaluate their relationship with the organisation and other aspects of working for the organisation such as its goals and values (Porter *et al*., 1974).

Mowday *et al*. (1982, p.28) state that "although day-to-day events in the work place may affect an employee's level of job satisfaction, such transitory events should not

cause an employee to re-evaluate seriously his or her attachment to the overall organisation". It is expected that any changes in the organisation, for instance, plans for redundancies, unfair promotional procedures or poor pay may in the long run affect the employee's commitment to the organisation. Porter *et al.*, (1974, p.608) concluded from their study that "… although we would expect commitment and satisfaction to be related, each construct appears to contribute unique information about the individual's relationship to the organisation". Lambert (2004) in their study of 272 correctional facilities employees, found that job characteristics (i.e. job variety, autonomy and supervision) varied in how they affected job satisfaction and organisational commitment, with these characteristics having stronger effects on job satisfaction than on organisational commitment. According to Lambert, since job satisfaction is concerned with an individual's job while organisational commitment with the bond to an overall organisation, it is expected that job characteristics would have larger effects on job satisfaction than they would on organisational commitment.

Despite these differences, studies have shown that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are positively correlated. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that organisational commitment had a strong positive relationship with overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with promotion, pay and supervision among others. Meyer *et al.* (1993) in a study of 1000 randomly selected registered nurses found that job satisfaction was positively correlated with affective commitment and normative commitment but negatively correlated with continuance commitment. Deery, Iverson and Erwin (1994) in their study of 480 white-collar staff in Australia, found that job satisfaction and autonomy were positively correlated to organisational commitment respectively while external opportunities negatively affected employees' organisational commitment. Due to the differences between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, these two constructs will be examined separately as dependent variables.

4.6 Consequence of organisational commitment and job satisfaction – intentions to turnover

Studies have shown that the consequences of organisational commitment and job satisfaction include absenteeism, tardiness and turnover (Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Reichers, 1985; Lambert and Hogan, 2009). Employees with low commitment levels

and who are dissatisfied with their jobs are expected to report high turnover rates, absenteeism and poor job performance. Employee turnover is costly to organisations, in terms of recruitment and selection costs, training of new employees, loss of the performance and expertise of skilled employees, and difficulty in attracting new employees if the reasons for the departure of former employees are such as to make others unwilling to work for the organisation (Tetty, 2006; Lambert and Hogan, 2009). As a result, the organisation incurs the indirect costs of turnover which include increased use of inexperienced and/or tired staff, insufficient staffing resulting in decreased quality of services provided, decreased morale and loss of recruiting, training and socialisation investments. On the other hand, employee turnover can also provide positive changes in the organisation through the creation of promotion opportunities, re-organisation and restructuring of reporting lines and decision-making, and the infusion of new people with new ideas (Al-Omari, Qablan and Khasawneh, 2008).

Employee turnover may be either voluntary or involuntary turnover. Voluntary turnover (i.e. quitting) occurs when the employee chooses to leave the job and is therefore more harmful to the organisation. Involuntary turnover, in contrast, is employer initiated either through dismissals or retrenchment (Iverson, 1999; Lambert and Hogan, 2009), and may also include death or mandatory retirement (Mobley, 1977). For the purpose of this research, voluntary turnover and its behavioural intention i.e. turnover intentions instead of actual turnover, will be considered. Actual turnover could not be measured in this study because it was not only difficult to gain access to people who had already left the universities to establish the reasons for quitting, but also because record keeping in the universities is quite problematic and thus available information is incomplete and would, therefore, not give accurate results.

Mobley (1977) in his model of the intermediate linkages of the turnover process found that there were processes involved in an employee's decision to leave the organisation. Before a decision to actually turnover is reached, an employee expresses behavioural intentions to leave the organisation which include thinking of quitting the organisation, intention to search for alternatives and intentions to quit the organisation. This involves evaluating the cost of quitting such as loss of seniority,

loss of vest benefits among others. If the cost of quitting is too high, then the employee may re-evaluate the existing job or engage in other forms of withdrawal, for instance, lateness and absenteeism.

Studies have found that organisational commitment and job satisfaction are inversely related to turnover intentions (Steers, 1977; Mowday *et al*., 1979; Angle and Perry, 1981; Igbaria and Guimaraes, 1999; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). Employees, who are highly committed to their organisations and identify with the goals of the organisation, have little reason to want to leave. Similarly, employees who have rewarding, meaningful and enjoyable jobs are less likely to quit as compared to employees who dislike their jobs. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that attitudinal commitment had a stronger negative correlation with intentions to leave than with calculative commitment. Somers (1995) found that affective and normative commitment had stronger positive correlations with intentions to remain as compared to continuance commitment. Karsh, Bookse and Sainfort (2005) found that turnover intentions had strong negative correlations with organisational identification, intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction. Igbaria and Guimaraes (1999) reported that employees who have insufficient information to perform their jobs adequately, unclear expectations of peers, ambiguity of performance evaluation methods, extensive job pressures and lack of consensus on job functions or duties among peers, supervisors and customers, may feel less satisfied with their jobs, less committed to the organisation and have a high propensity to quit their organisations.

In a study of 139 academics from a Jordanian university (Al-Omari *et al*. 2008) found that job satisfaction ($\beta = .345$, $p < 0.05$) and organisational commitment ($\beta = .621$, $p < 0.05$), had significant positive effects on intent to stay. Al-Omari and colleagues suggest that efforts to improve faculty retention should focus on the work-related factors that affect job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1997) argue that the three components of organisational commitment, namely; affective, normative and continuance commitment will have different effects on the outcomes of organisational commitment. For instance, an employee who is affectively attached to an organisation will have greater motivation or desire to contribute meaningfully to the organisation than an employee with weak

affective attachment. Such an employee will therefore choose not to be absent from work and will desire to perform their duties well. However, employees whose attachment to the organisation is based on continuance commitment will stay with the organisation mainly due to the investments they have in the organisation. Such employees, therefore, may not contribute effectively to the organisation and may eventually feel frustrated, leading to inappropriate work behaviours such as absenteeism. Finally, the feeling of indebtedness or obligation to the organisation arising from normative commitment may create some resentment which may affect the employee's performance.

In summary, it is expected that employees in Kenyan universities who are satisfied with their jobs and committed to their universities are less likely to intend to turnover. However, taking into consideration the poor economic performance of the country, it is expected that employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs or have low organisational commitment levels are more likely to choose to remain because of limited alternative job opportunities.

4.7 Job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the higher education context

Higher education institutions the world over are facing several challenges resulting from diminishing funds, globalisation and the rapid pace at which new knowledge is being created and utilised which require reforms in the management and governance styles of these institutions (Nyaigotti-Chacha, 2004). Consequently, the satisfaction and commitment of higher education employees under such challenging work environments has become imperative. Although there is increasing interest in employee satisfaction in higher education, majority of the theoretical and empirical work is concentrated in the affluent western European countries and North America where conditions are better, with limited studies from developing countries (Olsen, Maple, and Stage, 1995; Oshagbemi, 1997; Lacy and Sheehan, 1997; Volkwein and Parmley, 2000; Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002). This section will examine studies on employee satisfaction, commitment and turnover intentions from developed and developing countries with the aim of drawing conclusions on factors affecting employee satisfaction and commitment in the Kenyan context.

4.7.1 Job satisfaction and organisational commitment in universities in developed countries

Oshagbemi (2000) investigated the extent to which UK academics were satisfied with their primary task of teaching, research and administration. In a survey study of 554 academics from 23 universities, he found that 80% of the academics were most satisfied with their task of teaching, followed by research (65%) and institutional management (40%). The study found that most UK academics are satisfied with the courses they teach and the freedom they have to choose the content of their courses, while some were dissatisfied with their class sizes and workload. Most of the respondents were dissatisfied with their administrative activities and complained that the excessive paperwork demanded of them reduced the time left for research.

Lacy and Sheehan (1997) using a sample of 12,599 respondents from eight nations (Australia, Germany, Hong Kong, Israel, Mexico, Sweden, UK and USA) examined aspects of academics satisfaction with their jobs. Academics across the eight nations reported general satisfaction with their colleagues, job security, opportunity to pursue their own ideas, and their job situation as a whole. However, 44.1% of the respondents were dissatisfied with their promotion prospects compared with 27.6% who indicated satisfaction. Academics from Israel and USA expressed the highest levels of job satisfaction with the courses they teach as compared to academics from Hong Kong, Sweden and Germany. With the exception of Israel and Mexico, there were significant gender differences across the nations, with male academics being more satisfied with most aspects of their jobs (i.e. job security, promotions, opportunity to pursue own ideas and overall job satisfaction) as compared to the females. With regard to overall job satisfaction, most of the academics from Sweden and USA were more satisfied with their jobs than their colleagues in Germany, Mexico, Australia and UK.

Further studies by Lacy and Sheehan (1997) of 1394 Australian academics, found that male academics were more satisfied than females with most aspects of their jobs. Academics in the lowest rank (i.e. tutors) were less satisfied with their jobs as compared to their professorial colleagues. Academics indicated greatest satisfaction with the classes they teach (77%), relationships with colleagues (69%), opportunity to

pursue own ideas (65%) and job security (58%). However, they were most dissatisfied with their promotion prospects (25%) and the way their institutions were managed (18%). Lacy and Sheehan concluded that if academic staff were to be encouraged to express higher levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of dissatisfaction, attention must be paid to the environment in which they work (i.e. their sense of community, faculty-administration relationship, faculty morale, intellectual atmosphere and intellectual atmosphere).

Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) in a survey study of 1,511 faculty from 10 public universities in America, found that the best predictors for academics morale were their engagement in their work (i.e. enthusiasm and satisfaction with their work, intellectual stimulation and sharing a common purpose), their sense of institutional regard and their own personal morale. They concluded from their study that morale was the primary factor in faculty members' intention to leave their positions, institutions and professions.

Volkwein and Zhou (2003) in a survey study of 1,178 administrators from 122 American universities found that intrinsic satisfaction was lower among administrators who worked in a controlled work environment, had job insecurity, and experienced interpersonal conflict. Extrinsic satisfaction was negatively influenced by job insecurity, external regulation, job stress and pressure, and inadequate facilities and funding. Teamwork positively influenced extrinsic, intrinsic and interpersonal satisfaction. Volkwein and Zhou suggested that university presidents should respond to the intrinsic needs of their managers by creating opportunities for them to be creative, to exercise their initiative and match their talents to their job responsibilities.
Similarly, Smerek and Peterson (2007) in a study of 1,987 non-academic respondents from a public American university examined the relationship between employees' personal characteristics, job characteristics, perceived work environments and job satisfaction. Testing Herzberg *et al.*'s (1959) duality theory, the study found that 'motivator' factors (i.e. work itself, opportunity for advancement and responsibility) and 'hygiene' factors (i.e. effective senior management, supervisory support and satisfaction with salary) were the strongest predictors of job satisfaction. Age was the only personal characteristic to predict job satisfaction. The researchers concluded that the perceived work environment variables were more important than personal

characteristics in predicting job satisfaction.

Hagedorn (1996) examined the role of female/male wage differentials in job satisfaction. In a survey study of 5,450 respondents from American universities, Hagedorn found that a significant proportion of female faculty members received lower wages than their male colleagues resulting in reduced levels of job satisfaction, increased stress and increased likelihood to leave the academic profession. Hagedorn concluded that gender-based discriminatory practices in higher education, such as wage differences between men and women were costly as it led to the turnover of qualified female academics. Since the study was exploratory in nature, Hagedorn reported that some contextual factors that may have had significant effect on job satisfaction may not have been captured.

Wolverton, Montez, Guillory and Gmelch (2001) in a survey study of organisational commitment and turnover intentions among 822 Deans from 360 American institutions, found that deans who were inside hires tended to be more committed and less likely to leave than deans brought from outside their institutions. Deans who had external opportunities exhibited lower organisational commitment and were more intent on leaving unlike deans who were satisfied with their jobs and believed that they worked in good institutions. The study found that work-related stress was positively related to organisational commitment suggesting that some levels of stress challenged deans to do their best. Wolverton and colleagues conclude that universities should enhance the professional development and recognition of the institutional worth of their deans if they expect loyalty from them.

The above studies show that intrinsic aspects of the job mainly shape the extent to which university academics are satisfied with their jobs and committed to their institutions.

4.7.2. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment in universities in developing countries

Limited studies have been conducted on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions among employees in universities from developing or less developed countries. Tetty (2006, p.12) observes that most universities in developing

countries and Africa in particular, have been affected by ‘brain drain’. In the African context, Tetty reports that most students or current academics who are sent abroad for studies do not return because of ‘pull and push’ factors which include better economic opportunities. The exit of academics without commensurate replacement has affected the quality of education and morale of existing staff in most African universities.

Küskü (2003) from a survey study of 191 academics and 100 administrative employees from a state university in Turkey found that academic employees had higher professional satisfaction and were satisfied with competition among colleagues than administrative employees. On the other hand, administrative employees were more satisfied with the relationship with their colleagues, their work environment and their salary as compared to academic employees. Poor remuneration of academic employees is common in developing countries where financial and economic resources are limited thus challenging the ability of state universities to attract and retain qualified staff.

Chughtai and Zafar (2006) in a survey study of 125 teachers from Pakistani universities, found that distributive justice, trust in management, satisfaction with actual work undertaken, job involvement and satisfaction with training opportunities were the strongest positive predictors of organisational commitment. Contrary to previous studies, procedural justice was not a significant predictor of organisational commitment. According to the researchers, employees from third-world countries who struggle to make ends meet may be more interested in personal outcomes such as high pay rise than the fairness of the procedures. A large pay check will, therefore, buy more regardless of whether the procedures are fair or not.

Ssesanga (2003, 2005) in a survey study, explored job satisfaction and dissatisfaction from a sample of 182 Ugandan academics. Consistent with studies from western contexts (e.g. Lacy and Sheehan, 1997; Oshagbemi, 1997, 2000), the study found that Ugandan academics derived satisfaction from interests shown by students in the courses they taught, autonomy of content taught, relationship with and respect by students, co-worker and supervisory support, job autonomy and freedom to research and publish. On the hand, sources of dissatisfaction resulted from inadequate pay, lack of research funds, poor library facilities, access to computers, large classes,

undervaluing of teaching excellence as a promotion requirement and the relationship with their universities management. Consistent with most African universities (Ajayi *et al.*, 1996; Mutula, 2002; Tetty, 2006) Ssesanga found that poor remuneration has forced most Ugandan academics to leave their universities in search for greener pastures, while those who remain are forced to moonlight, thereby dividing their loyalty to their employer, and reducing their commitment to their universities.

Similarly, Onen and Maicibi (2004) in a study of 267 non-academic staff respondents from a Ugandan university found that over 70% of the respondents were dissatisfied with their basic salary and other allowances, resulting in low motivation among the staff. The study also found that employees were dissatisfied with their promotional and training opportunities. According to the researchers, most of the employees are still grappling to meet their daily basic needs which are not adequately met by the low basic salaries and allowances, and therefore have no additional funds for training.

The above findings from developing countries indicate that universities are facing serious challenges in motivating and enhancing the commitment of their employees. Various factors such as inadequate and non-competitive salaries, poor physical working conditions, inadequate teaching and research resources, poor institutional governance among other factors are some the challenges that these universities face in terms of motivating their staff and containing high turnover rates. This is contrary to academics and administrative employees from developed countries who are generally satisfied with their jobs.

4.8 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the different conceptual approaches in understanding organisational commitment. The literature has revealed that there is a lack of consensus by different researchers regarding the meaning, dimensionality and measurement of the construct resulting in inconsistent results. Different researchers have used the social exchange theory, attitudinal and behavioural approaches to explain organisational commitment. However, since each of these approaches on their own do not give a complete picture of the nature of employee commitment to the organisation, research studies have shown that organisational commitment is a

multidimensional construct consisting of affective, normative and continuance commitment. The literature has also shown that job satisfaction is a bi-dimensional construct consisting of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Turnover intention, which is an outcome of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, has been found to be inversely related to organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

Studies have found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment were considerably high among employees in universities from developed countries. However, despite having better working environments than academics in developing countries, some academics have been shown to be dissatisfied with certain aspects of their jobs such as promotions and the way their universities are managed. On the other hand, studies from developing countries and Africa in particular, have shown that university employees, especially academics, are dissatisfied with their jobs due to inadequate and non-competitive salaries and unfavourable working conditions which do not encourage professional development.

Despite the detailed review of the literature above, the main limitation of most of these studies related to the research design. Most of the research studies referred to in this study relied on the cross-sectional research design. According to Meyer and Allen (1996) this type of research design is not adequate in establishing cause and effect. This means that the findings from these studies were limited to presenting the degree of association or relationships between variables. Ideally, longitudinal research design with time lags would be appropriate for these studies in order to establish causality (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

In light of the challenges facing the higher education sector in Kenya (see Chapter 3), the aim of this research is to empirically test the applicability of Meyer and Allen's organisational commitment to the Kenyan context and examine the factors influencing employees' job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The next chapter discusses the extent to which demographic characteristics and different work-related practices are likely to influence employees' commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

CHAPTER FIVE

Antecedents of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions

5.1 Introduction

Various studies have been carried out relating organisational commitment and job satisfaction to their consequences and antecedents (Mottaz, 1988; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Reichers (1985) in a review of the commitment literature found that the antecedents of organisational commitment were more varied and inconsistent than their outcomes. Additionally, whereas the literature is clear about the outcomes of low organisational commitment consisting of turnover and other forms of withdrawal, the literature is still characterised by a "laundry list" of antecedent variables (Reichers, 1985, p. 10). Reichers reports that these inconsistencies stem from the varied ways in which commitment has been defined and operationalised. Mottaz (1988) argues that this lack of consistency in the organisational commitment antecedents is due to a poorly specified conceptual model of commitment from which the variables are derived. As a result, different studies use different variables hence making it difficult to compare the results of one study with those of another.

Although issues related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment among employees within different types of organisations have been researched extensively, relatively few of these studies have involved faculty and other workers in higher education (Oshagbemi and Hickson, 2003; Volkwein and Zhou, 2003; Brown and Sargeant, 2007). Even less evidence is available related to job satisfaction in higher education for non-western nations. This means that most of the literature review on the linkages between various antecedent variables and organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions will be based on the business and public sector, unless otherwise specified.

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the impact of demographic characteristics, job

and role-related factors, professional commitment and selected human resource management (HRM) practices in predicting organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among employees in public and private universities. Finally, a conceptual framework is developed from which several hypotheses are derived for testing.

5.2 Demographic Characteristics

Employees' demographic characteristics are some of the most commonly used variables in relation to organisational commitment and job satisfaction although some studies have found inconsistent results (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Al-Qarioti and Al-Enezi, 2004). Mottaz (1988) found that the influence of demographic variables were indirect through work rewards and work values. Some studies have found that personal variables such as age, tenure, education, gender and marital status played a significant role in enhancing employees side bets (Becker, 1960; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Stevens *et al*., 1978) while others have not found a significant relationship between these variables and organisational commitment (Ritzer and Trice, 1969; Aven *et al*., 1993). These variables are discussed below:

a) Age

Most of the studies have consistently found that age was positively correlated to organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and negatively correlated with turnover intentions (Steers, 1977; Angle and Perry, 1981; Bateman and Strassser, 1984; Mowday *et al*., 1982; Cohen, 1993). Karsh *et al*. (2005) in their study of 6584 nursing home employees, found that unlike younger employees, older employees displayed higher continuance commitment and found it difficult to leave due to factors such as financial obligations to family among other things. Price and Mueller (1981) found that younger employees were more likely to turnover than older employees because they had the most routine jobs, participated less in the decision making process, lacked knowledge about their jobs, had fewer friends and received less pay.

Sager and Johnson (1989) found that age was unrelated to a salesperson's organisational commitment. In terms of career commitment, older salespersons were likely to have reached the plateau of their careers and therefore become less

committed to their careers as compared to younger salespersons. It is therefore expected that that older employees will be more committed to their universities, more satisfied with their jobs and less likely to turnover than younger employees.

In a survey study of 263 administrators and sector managers, faculty and staff of a Caribbean university, Brown and Sargeant (2007) found that older workers (i.e. aged 46 years and above) had higher levels of overall, intrinsic, and extrinsic job satisfaction and organisational commitment than their younger colleagues (i.e. aged 26 to 35 years). Brown and Sargeant suggest that universities ensure that they provide opportunities for workers (especially middle 20s to early 30s) to develop their job satisfaction and organisational commitment by encouraging them to be part of the decision-making process of the institution. This approach would make these workers feel valued and respected and could translate into satisfied workers who would be committed to the organisation because they were included in the decision making process.

b) Education

Various studies have shown that education is negatively related to organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and positively related to turnover intentions (Steers, 1977; Angle and Perry, 1981; Bateman and Strasser, 1984; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Eskildsen, Kristensen and Westlund, 2004). Mowday *et al*., (1982, p. 30) reports that "... this inverse relationship may result from the fact that more educated individuals have higher expectations that the organisation may be unable to meet" resulting in the loss of commitment. Consequently, highly educated individuals were likely to become more committed to their professions than their organisations. It therefore, becomes more difficult for organisations to compete for the psychological involvement of such members. Commitment levels and intentions to remain are likely to be lower for highly educated employees who have a greater number of job options (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). This seems to correspond to the situation in Kenyan public universities whereby highly trained academics in the fields of medicine, science and technology turnover more than those in the humanities (Abagi, 1998). Habomugisha (1998) found that failure by the Ugandan government to adequately remunerate highly educated academics has accounted for the high level of brain drain in their universities.

c) Gender

Some studies on the relationship between gender and organisational commitment have

found weak and inconsistent correlations (e.g. Angle and Perry, 1981; Bateman and Strasser; 1984; Steers, 1977; Mowday *et al*., 1982). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found a weak correlation between gender and organisational commitment, with women being more committed to the organisation than men. Since women have had to overcome more barriers to attain their positions in the organisation, they may place greater value on their organisations and jobs than do their male counterparts (Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1990; Mowday *et al*., 1982; Grusky, 1966; Morris, Wood and Yaacob, 2001).

d) Marital status

Studies have found a positive relationship between marital status and organisational commitment with married employees being more committed than single employees (Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1990). Married employees exhibited higher organisational commitment largely due to greater family obligations which constrain their opportunities to change employers (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Taormina, 1999; Cetin, 2006). Camilleri (2002) found that marital status was more related to continuance commitment, suggesting that married employees had more financial concerns.

e) Tenure

The organisational commitment-tenure[13] relationship develops after the employee has spent some years in the organisation and developed investments or side-bets which would be the deciding factor as to whether or not to continue membership with the organisation (Becker, 1960; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Cohen, 1993). Stevens *et al*., (1978) found that job tenure was a positive predictor of organisational commitment while positional tenure was a negative predictor. This is because side bets accrue with length of time in the organisation whereas negative perceptions or costs develop as a result of career stagnation.

Morris *et al*. (2001) observed that employees who had served the organisation for longer periods of time and/or were better educated, were less committed to the organisation. Because of the "push and pull" factor, senior Malaysian academics actively sought better employment opportunities, while the least qualified and the least experienced tended to demonstrate higher degrees of organisational commitment

[13] Tenure consists of job and position tenure. Position tenure refers to the number of years spent in the same position while job tenure refers to the number of years spent working in the university.

due to lack of available opportunities elsewhere.

f) Occupational groups

Employees' occupational groupings have been found to have a significant influence on organisational commitment and job satisfaction. The primary duties of academics are teaching, research and to a small extent, administration and management (Oshagbemi, 2000) while the role of administrative staff include offering support services to research and teaching activities (Kusku, 2003). Previous research studies have distinguished these two groups on the basis of their education, goals and orientation to their professions and organisations (Page, 1998). Gouldner (1957) used the 'local versus cosmopolitan' typologies to differentiate these two groups based on three factors: organisational loyalty, commitment to professional skills and values, and reference group orientation (internal or external). Cosmopolitans tend to be low on commitment to the employer, high on professional commitment, and externally oriented in terms of reference groups. Such workers (e.g. academics) are oriented towards the creation of new knowledge and also seek the recognition of knowledgeable peers in their professional community outside their own organisation (Fuller *et al*, 2006; Cohen, 2007).

On the other hand, employees with 'local' orientations have a strong loyalty to their employing organisation and a weak identification with their profession (Gouldner, 1957; Cohen, 2007). 'Locals' (e.g. university staff and managers) are regarded as having totally committed their career aspirations to their organisation and are therefore likely to remain in the organisation indefinitely unlike cosmopolitans who have greater opportunities for horizontal job mobility and therefore can fill jobs in many different organisations (Gouldner, 1957; Fuller *et al*., 2006).

Other research studies have shown that non-professional employees who perform meaningless and unchallenging jobs will have higher levels of organisational commitment and lower commitment to their professions as compared to employees in high status jobs (Ritzer and Trice, 1969; Cohen, 1992). Similarly, Cohen and Gattiker (1994) found that type of occupation was a significant predictor of organisational commitment with managers having higher levels of commitment and pay satisfaction than non-managers because their income was higher. Mowday *et al*. (1982) however, did not find any significant differences in the commitment levels across occupational

levels.

g) University sector

Studies have shown that public sector workers have lower levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction than private sector workers (Buchanan, 1974b; Rainey, Backoff and Levine, 1976; Mulinge, 2000; Obeng and Ugboro, 2003). Baldwin (1987) found that public sector organisations were bureaucratic, over-staffed, lacked clear goals or objectives and had fewer performance measures than private sector organizations. However, he found that public sector employees with long employment records were more attached and committed to their organisations because of job security. He further stated that the differences across sectors depended on employees' perception of the degree to which job characteristics such as job clarity, job satisfaction, autonomy and promotion increased their commitment to the organisation. Bourantas and Papalexandris (1992) found that positive reinforcement was weaker in public organisations as a result of greater role vagueness and specific measures which limited the connection between the manager's effort and organisational effectiveness. They also found that private sector organisations placed greater emphasis on performance-based rewards which reflected positively on the commitment of managers. Similarly, Lachman (1985) found that CEOs in the public sector were less satisfied with both their extrinsic rewards (financial rewards and benefits, social and work relations, etc.) and their intrinsic rewards (job challenge, personal growth, sense of accomplishment, etc.). However, some studies have not found any sector differences in employee work attitudes (Kline and Peters, 1991).

5.3 Job and role-related factors

Work environments are not just tangible, physical structures but are also composed of social and psychological factors (Lambert, 2004). These work environments consist of job characteristics and role stressors, factors which are expected to influence employees' attitudinal states. Various studies have been carried out relating organisational commitment and job satisfaction to different work-related characteristics such as task variety, autonomy, feedback, role conflict, role ambiguity, work overload, co-worker and supervisory support (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Sims, Szilagyi and Keller, 1976; Lambert, 2004).

a) Job characteristics

Studies have shown that employees exhibit high levels of commitment and job satisfaction when they perform challenging and complex jobs characterised by factors such as skills variety, autonomy, and feedback among others (Sims *et al*., 1976; Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997). Dixon, Cunningham, Sagas, Turner and Kent (2005) in their study of 71 interns, found that the provision of challenging jobs was a sign that employees were valued by the organisation since they had an opportunity to learn new skills, resulting in high affective commitment. Mottaz (1987, 1988) found that unlike demographic characteristics, job characteristics such as job autonomy, skills variety and job significance had strong, positive influence on organisational commitment and work satisfaction. Lambert (2003) found that job variety and job autonomy had positive effects on both job satisfaction and organisational commitment among correctional staff members. Studies have shown that employees are unlikely to enjoy repetitive, boring jobs that provide little opportunity for mental stimulation or growth (Price and Mueller 1986; Curry *et al*. 1986; Lambert 2004; Lambert *et al*., 2007). In addition, organisations that take the time and effort to stimulate employees through differential job opportunities will usually be seen in a more positive light, leading to increased organisational commitment and job satisfaction among the workers (Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1990; Lambert, 2003).

Autonomy in the academic profession is an important characteristic (Kim, Twombly and Wolf-Wendel, 2008). However, autonomy is increasingly under threat due to the global economic emphasis on efficiency and a stronger focus on income generation, which means that faculty members have less control over their work. Kim and colleagues utilised survey data from the National Study of Post Secondary Faculty. 2004 compiled by the National Centre for Education studies, USA. In a study of 4664 faculty members, they found that academics who were more satisfied with their salary ($\beta = .035$, $p < 0.01$), fringe benefits ($\beta = .046$, $p < 0.001$) and teaching support ($\beta = .090$, $p < 0.001$) were more satisfied with their instructional autonomy. Further, academics who believed that teaching was rewarded at their institutions were more satisfied with their instructional autonomy. Kim and colleagues concluded that policy makers and universities should guard the creativity and autonomy of their members.

Al-Omari *et al*., (2008) found that autonomy had a positive direct effect on academics intent to stay through job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.069$, $p < 0.05$) and organisational commitment ($\beta = 0.051$, $p < 0.05$). This suggests that a higher level of autonomy was associated with higher levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment which in turn yielded higher levels of intent to stay. According to Al-Omari and colleagues, autonomy may enhance faculty job satisfaction and organisational commitment because it provides academics with the professional freedom they expect from their jobs and enables them to employ their specialised knowledge in appropriate ways without extensive oversight. Al-Omari and colleagues conclude that providing academics with autonomy, ensuring equity in rewards, workload, and mutually negotiating work expectations are likely to increase job satisfaction and organisational commitment, which in turn strengthen faculty intent to stay.

Supervisory and co-worker support have been found to be significant predictors of job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Lambert, 2003; Dixon *et al*., 2005). Employees are more likely to view their jobs and employing organisations in a more favourable light if they are provided with positive, support from their supervisors (Lambert, 2004; Lambert *et al*. 2007). Conversely, employees will be dissatisfied with their job and blame the organisation for the negative situation if they are provided with poor, harsh, unhelpful supervision. Similarly, Mowday *et al*. (1982) noted that supervisors who allow their employees greater autonomy over how they perform their work increase the employees feeling of responsibility. From a social exchange perspective, therefore, employees who are provided with meaningful, enriched jobs may reciprocate by increasing their commitment to the organisation.

Joiner and Bakalis (2006), in a survey study of 72 Australian casual academics, found that job-related characteristics played an important role in their affective commitment. The study found that strong co-worker and supervisor supports both positively contributed to affective commitment. This suggests that a supervisor, usually the academic head of department, who offers support, shares concerns and provides useful job-related information, is likely to have a positive influence on academics' organisational commitment. Likewise, academic co-workers who provide mutual support for one another in terms of providing information and assistance, increase

their sense of connection and commitment with the university.

b) Role-related factors

Role stressors (namely, role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload) have been found to negatively affect job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Lambert, 2003; Ngo *et al*., 2005). Role ambiguity occurs when an individual does not have clear information about the expectations of his or her role in the job or organisation (Rizzo *et al*., 1970). Role conflict refers to the incompatibility among role expectations and demands that impinge on employee role performance (Rizzo *et al*., 1970). Finally, role overload occurs when individuals perceive that the cumulative demands exceed their abilities and motivation to perform the tasks related to their job successfully (Peterson *et al*., 1995). In this case, the employee finds it difficult to complete an assigned task within an allotted period of time (Selmer and Fenner, 2009). Various studies have found role stressors to be negative predictors of organisational commitment and job satisfaction and positive predictors of turnover intentions (Rizzo *et al*., 1970; Mowday *et al*., 1982; Peterson *et al*., 1995; Camilleri, 2002; Maxwell and Steele, 2003; Bettencourt and Brown, 2003; Karsh *et al*., 2005; Dixon *et al*., 2005; Ngo *et al*., 2005). However, Selmer and Fenner (2009) found that neither role conflict nor role overload had any significant relationship with job satisfaction.

Meyer and Allen (1997) have argued that affective commitment was likely to be low among employees who were "unsure about what is expected from them (role ambiguity) or who are expected to behave in ways that seem incompatible (role conflict)" (p.45). Stevens *et al*. (1978) in their study of Federal service managers, found work overload to be the most significant negative predictor of organisational commitment. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found different role states to be negatively correlated to organisational commitment and concluded that employees who reported greater levels of role strain also tended to report lower levels of organisational commitment. Consequently, employees who experience higher levels of role stress might blame the organisation for creating and allowing the stress, and therefore, are less likely to bond with the organisation (Lambert and Paoline, 2008).

Al-Omari *et al*. (2008) found that workload had a negative indirect effect on faculty's

intent to stay through job satisfaction (β = -0.019, $p < 0.05$) and a positive indirect effect through organisational commitment (β = 0.056, $p < 0.05$). This suggests that higher levels of workload were associated with lower levels of job satisfaction which in turn weakened academics intent to stay in their universities.

In a survey study of academic workload and compensation among 182 faculty members from a US university, Comm and Mathaisel (2003) found that 72% of the respondents perceived that their overall workload had increased or was too high. In addition, 55% of the faculty took on additional teaching responsibilities beyond their normal required workload for income reasons. To manage academic workload, Comm and Mathaisel suggest that universities could provide office and research assistants, divide responsibilities among faculty and provide faculty with the technologies and training to more easily perform their jobs. Further, to encourage publishing, Comm and Mathaisel suggest that university management consider rewarding faculty who publish refereed journal articles with a reduction in teaching load to increase their research productivity.

In a longitudinal study of 1700 academics from a New Zealand university carried out in 2002 and 2003, Houston, Meyer and Paewai (2006) found that a high proportion of respondents (86% and 94% respectively) indicated that they often worked after hours. Further, 34% and 39% respondents indicated that they had worked more than 10 hours beyond their full-time allocated hours. Consequently, academic staff had difficulty in establishing clear time commitments to complete quality research. Houston *et al*. (2006) conclude that unless workloads are managed well and time is provided for scholarship and research as well as teaching and service – factors which are valued by academics– the lifestyle of academics and their satisfaction with teaching as a career choice, will be affected.

Al-Omari *et al.* (2008) found that role conflict had a negative indirect effect on academics intent to stay through job satisfaction (β = -0.041, $p < 0.05$) and organisational commitment (β = -0.071, $p < 0.05$). This suggests that role conflict diminished satisfaction and organisational commitment which in turn reduced intent to stay. According to Al-Omari and colleagues, universities can alleviate role conflict by clarifying institutional priorities and expectations for faculty work. In this regard,

deans and department chairs can take steps to clarify the goals of academic units and to explain how those goals relate to individual faculty members' activities, thereby reducing potential for role conflict.

In light of the above discussion, it is expected that employees who perform meaningful, enriched jobs which are characterised by task variety, challenge, autonomy, regular feedback, and provide them with the opportunity to satisfy their self-esteem are likely to be satisfied with their jobs and have higher levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction unlike employees work under stressful work conditions.

5.4. Professional commitment and organisational commitment

Professional commitment has been interchangeably referred to as occupational or career commitment in the literature (Lee, Carswell and Allen, 2000). Professional commitment has been defined as the psychological attachment to and identification with one's profession (Chang and Choi, 2007). With the current changes in the global economy, organisations are going through major changes which have had serious repercussions for the employment relationship. As a result of organisational instability, it is likely that some employees will shift their commitment from their organisations to the relative stability of their occupations/professions (Snape and Redman, 2003).

Studies have identified two contradictory approaches regarding the relation between organisational and professional commitment (Wallace, 1993). The rationale for these approaches relates to the issue of conflict or compatibility which is likely to underlie the relationship between organisational commitment and professional commitment. The conflict approach assumes that an employee's commitment to an organisation and commitment to a profession are mutually exclusive. Kalleberg and Berg (1987) cited by Wallace (1993: p. 333) refer to the organisational-professional commitment conflict as the 'zero sum' game in which an increase in one form of commitment results in a decrease in another form of commitment. Some studies have used the 'cosmopolitan-local' orientation with an aim of differentiating the levels of commitment to the values and norms of a profession versus those of an employing

organization (Gouldner, 1957; Tuma and Grimes, 1981; Fuller *et al*., 2006; Chang and Choi, 2007). 'Cosmopolitans' are perceived to be high on professional commitment, low on organisational commitment and are externally oriented while 'locals' are low on professional commitment, high on organisational commitment and are internally oriented. These two value systems have been found to be in conflict with each other, resulting in 'commitment dilemma' or organisational–professional conflict (Gouldner, 1957).

In contrast to the above approach, the compatibility approach posits that professional and organisational commitments are not necessarily in conflict and are, in fact, positively related (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Wallace, 1993). For example, Aranya, Pollock and Amernic (1981) in a study of 1206 Certified Public Accountants from Canada, found organisational and professional commitment to be compatible due to the positive relationships between the two variables. Aranya and Ferris (1984) re-visited this issue by examining the responses of 2,016 US and Canadian accountants. The study found a positive correlation between organisational commitment and professional commitment, which means that the relationship between these two commitments is compatible. Aranya and Ferris (1984) conclude that employees who are highly committed to both the profession and the organisation were better performers than less committed ones, resulting in improved overall effectiveness of the organisation. Similarly, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) in a meta-analysis of 22 studies, found a positive relationship between professional and organisational commitment (correlation corrected for attenuation r_t = .438, p < 0.01), further supporting the compatibility of the two forms of commitment.

Wallace (1993) in a meta-analysis of 25 published organisational commitment and professional commitment studies with a total sample of 8203 respondents, found a moderately strong, positive association between professional and organisational commitment (true population correlation = .452). In the analysis, Wallace suggests that the degree of occupational professionalization is likely to moderate the true correlation between professional and organisational commitment. Wallace found that the true correlation between professional and organisational commitment for samples whose occupations are characterised by high professionalization (e.g. nurses, accountants and scientific university employee) is .505 compared to .321 for those

characterised by low professionalization (e.g. personnel managers, business graduates, insurance agents, supervisory staff). Wallace concluded that the higher the professionalization of the occupation, the higher the association between professional commitment and organisational commitment.

Wallace also found the position that one holds in the employing organisation was a potential moderator in the association between professional and organisational commitment. From 8 studies with 1688 respondents, Wallace found that the true correlation between professional and organisational commitment is .469 for managers and supervisors and .287 for non-supervisory staff. A possible explanation is that employees in higher hierarchies enjoy greater degrees of responsibilities, variety, autonomy and better pay than employees lower in the hierarchy. As a result, professional and organisational roles may be closely associated for employees in senior positions resulting in high compatibility of the professional-organisational commitment relationship.

Lee, Carswell and Allen (2000) examined the relationship between professional/occupational commitment and multidimensional organizational commitment. In a meta-analysis of 49 studies with 15,774 respondents, Lee and colleagues found that occupational commitment had a strong positive correlation with affective commitment (corrected weighted mean correlation = .449), weak negative correlation with continuance commitment (-.092) and a moderate, positive relationship with normative commitment (.341). Further, the study found that the relationship between occupational commitment for professional and non-professional employees were almost the same (.484 versus .448 respectively). According to Lee and colleagues, occupational socialization begins prior to employment for professions that require intensive training (e.g. law, accounting, nursing). For such employees, professional/occupational commitment may precede the development of organisational commitment. On the other hand, employment in non-professional occupations does not involve intensive pre-entry training, which makes post-entry job experiences critical in learning job skills and function. For such employees, professional/occupational commitment and organisational commitment are likely to develop concurrently.

In summary, studies have shown the association between professional commitment and organisational commitment as being either in conflict or compatible. Although most studies have shown that the two forms of commitment are compatible (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Wallace, 1993; Lee *et al*., 2000), the possibility that the commitments might come into conflict should not overlooked (Meyer and Allen, 1997). According to Meyer and Allen (1997, p. 99) it would be quite naive to imagine that the goals and values of the various entities to which people can become committed will always be compatible and that the demands that these make will never clash.

The present study will examine the following issues: Firstly, whether professional commitment and multidimensional organisational commitment are compatible or in conflict; secondly, whether academics (i.e. cosmopolitans) are likely to display a stronger association between professional commitment and multidimensional organisational commitment than administrative staff (i.e. locals); thirdly, whether professional commitment was a significant determinant of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions in the Kenyan context.

5.5 Human resource management

The management of human resources in organisations has made a transition since the 1980s from relative insignificance to strategic importance (Schuler, Dowling and De Cieri, 1993). Up until the early 1970s, organisations operated in a relatively stable environment with distinct domestic markets and minimal complexities. The late 1970s to the present has been characterised by a dynamic global economy with cut-throat competition, information technological advances and the upsurge of emerging economies. Therefore, as organisations continue to face a myriad of challenges, their survival will depend upon how effectively they manage their human resources and implement their human resource practices (Anakwe, 2002).

The importance of HRM practices on organisational outcomes such as organisational commitment and enhanced performance has become an important topic for researchers who have stressed the benefits to organisations of a loyal and committed workforce and the central role HRM practices may play in creating and maintaining

commitment (Iles *et al*., 1990; Meyer and Smith, 2000; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Gould-Williams, 2004). According to Meyer and Smith (2000) unless employees believe they have been treated fairly, they will not be committed to the organisation. Although various studies have been carried out to determine how employees' commitment to an organisation develops, limited research has been carried out on the potential impact of HRM practices on multidimensional organisational commitment (Meyer and Smith, 2000; Agarwala, 2003; Malhotra *et al*., 2007). Instead, most studies have selected variables carried over from job satisfaction studies as predictors of organisational commitment which include demographic characteristics, task identity, role stressor, organisational characteristics, work experiences and leadership among others while variables more directly related to HRM practices have been neglected (Iles *et al*., 1990; Steijn and Leisink, 2006). This is despite research evidence showing that organisational commitment is more strongly influenced by employee perceptions of HRM practices such as fairness of promotion practices and the accuracy of the merit system than by task, role or supervisory behaviour variables (Oglivie, 1986; Meyer and Smith, 2000). According to Gould-Williams (2004, p. 63) this supports the "common sense belief that improving the way people are managed inevitably leads to enhanced firm performance".

The importance of employee commitment within HRM has been advanced by Walton (1985) who presents two models of HRM namely, 'control' and 'commitment' also referred to as 'cost reducers' and 'commitment maximisers' or 'soft' and 'hard' HRM (Arthur, 1992; 1994; Walton, 1985; Whitener, 2001). The key distinctions in the soft-hard models of HRM are the emphasis placed on the 'human' or the 'resource' (Truss, Gratton, Hope-Hailey, McGovern and Stiles, 1997).

The 'hard' approach to HRM emphasises the "quantitative, calculative and business-strategic aspects of managing the headcount resource in as 'rational' a way as for any other economic factor" (Armstrong, 2003, p. 8). 'Hard' HRM adopts a business-oriented philosophy which focuses on the need to manage people in ways that will derive added value from them and thus achieve competitive advantage for the organisation. It puts emphasis on the term 'resource', implying that people are viewed like any other factor of production to be used rationally and deployed in a calculative and instrumental way for economic gain (Storey, 1992; Legge, 1995).

The goal of control/hard human resource management, is to reduce direct labour costs and improve efficiency by enforcing compliance with specified rules and procedures, basing employee rewards on some measurable output criteria, and seeking advantage over competitors through cost-cutting measures such as downsizing, reduction in security of tenure, reduced investment in training and a greater use of sub-contracted labour (Arthur, 1994; Webster and Wood, 2005). Further, it emphasises narrow, well-defined jobs, centralised decision-making, little training while "workers are more commodity-like and more replaceable" (Guthrie, 2001, p. 181). This approach has been associated with the work of McGregor's (1960) Theory X which depicts man as perpetually disliking work, leading to tighter managerial control through close supervision (Truss *et al*., 1997; Kamoche, 2000b). Consequently, 'hard' HRM has acquired a negative connotation and has become almost wholly associated with cost minimisation practices of low pay, low skill requirements and minimal training (Storey, 1998).

In contrast, commitment/soft HRM places emphasis on 'human' and is expected to shape desired employee behaviours and attitudes by forging psychological links between organisational and employee goals (Walton, 1985; Arthur, 1994; Truss *et al*., 1997; Guthrie, 2001; Webster and Wood, 2005). Although studies on 'soft' HRM have been credited to Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Mills and Walton (1985) who presented the Harvard Model of HRM and Guest (1987, 1997), Truss *et al*. (1997) traced it back to the human relations movement and McGregor's Theory Y perspective on individuals. The 'soft' model focuses on treating employees as valued assets and a source of competitive advantage through their commitment, adaptability and high quality skill and performance (Beer *et al*., 1985; Guest, 1997). 'Soft' HRM aims at "eliciting a commitment so that behaviour is primarily self-regulated rather than controlled by sanctions and pressures external to the individual and relations within the organisation are based on high levels of trust" (Wood, 1996, p. 41). Employees are perceived as being proactive rather than passive inputs into productive processes, capable of development, worthy of trust and collaboration which is achieved through participation (Walton, 1985; Legge, 1995).

Kamoche (2000b) in a study of organisations in Thailand, presented similar typologies of HRM referred to as 'traditional' and 'progressive' HRM. The main

features of traditional HRM (similar to ‘hard’ HRM) are tight controls, opposition to unions, autocratic leadership and cost minimisation, in particular wage costs, which in turn discourages investments in human resources, leading to low levels of commitment. Kamoche has likened this perspective with McGregor’s ‘Theory X’ where managers believed that workers were lazy, had little commitment, were inclined to form unions 'to cause trouble', and needed to be watched and supervised very closely. In contrast, progressive HRM (similar to ‘soft’ HRM) values people and invests in personal development leading to high levels of trust, participation, communication and caring.

However, studies have shown that it is not possible to have absolute ‘soft’ or ‘hard’ HRM. For instance, Guest (1987) has been criticised for drawing on both approaches in constructing his ‘theory’ of HRM which contains reference to four HRM policy goals, including ‘strategic integration’, which is clearly associated with his interpretation of the ‘hard’ model, and ‘commitment’ which is associated with his view of the ‘soft’ model (Truss *et al*., 1997, p. 55). Truss and colleagues further note that the soft model assumes that employees will work best to attain organisational effectiveness as long as they are committed to the organisation, are trusted, trained and developed, and allowed to work autonomously. However, Bassett (1994) cited by Truss *et al*. (1997) reported that the assumption that committed workers were necessarily more productive had never been proven. Similarly, Iles *et al*. (1990) argue that organisational commitment may not necessarily be a benefit, either for the employee or for the organisation. Instead, it may result in stress for the individual and the neglect of other areas of life. For the organisation, it may result in lower flexibility, less creativity and diversity, and resistance to change.

‘Hard’ HRM has also been dismissed by some researchers as being inhuman while others have claimed that it was the only route to business success (Hendry, 1995). Legge (1995) argues that ‘hard’ HRM has been used to strengthen management prerogative and legitimise the worst employee relations excesses of the enterprise culture. In a study of eight UK organisations, Truss *et al*. (1997) found that no single organisation adopted either a pure soft or hard approach to HRM. The study revealed that although most of the organisations embraced the tenets of the ‘soft’ version (e.g. training, development and commitment), the underlying principle was restricted to the

improvement of bottom-line performance. Acknowledging the gap between rhetoric and reality in relation to soft-hard HRM perspectives, Kochan *et al*. (1988) cited by Guest (1990, p. 389) stated: "We do not… believe that participative management styles and sophisticated human resource management policies are the dominant pattern… we believe aggressive resistance to unions and harsh personnel policies are also part of the story…".

In the Kenyan context, adoption of 'hard' HR practices appears to have been driven by an unfavourable economic climate characterised by high costs of production, shrinking product markets due to international competition occasioned by government liberalisation policies and high-level government corruption. As a result, most organisations have responded to these events by introducing harsh efficiency-enhancing strategies which emphasise cost management as opposed to investing in the employees. These cost cutting measures have been achieved through pay cutbacks, pay and recruitment freeze and redundancies. Consequently, these economic woes, amid high unemployment and widespread poverty have strengthened the employers' hands at the expense of employees and trade unions (Kamoche, Nyambegera and Mulinge, 2004b).

5.5.1 Research on high commitment management

Most HRM researchers in the recent years have focused on the identification of HR practices that enhance employee commitment. These practices have been loosely labelled as 'high commitment' or 'high involvement' practices which are thought to motivate employees by increasing organisational commitment, participation and involvement (Gould-Williams, 2004). Wood and de Menezes (1998, p. 485) suggest that employers who use 'high commitment' HRM practices see their employees as "assets or resources to be developed". Similarly, MacDuffie (1995) reports that high commitment management will only be successful if workers believe that their interests are aligned with those of the organisation and if the organisation makes a reciprocal investment in their wellbeing.

Studies have identified several HR practices which are likely to lead to positive HR outcomes such as higher quality employees, higher flexibility and higher levels of

commitment (MacDuffie, 1995; Pfeffer, 1998; Delery and Doty, 1996; Ichniowski, Shaw and Prennushi, 1997). These practices include job security; recruitment and selection; extensive training and development; employee involvement and information sharing; self-managed teams and decentralisation of decision making; performance-related rewards; reduction of status differences and internal career opportunities among others.

Studies have found a significant link between HRM practices and employee commitment (Oglivie, 1986; Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Meyer and Smith, 2000; McElroy, 2001). These studies suggest that particular HRM practices will elicit various forms of commitment to specific targets within the organisation. For example, Oglivie (1986) in a study of 67 American agricultural managers, found that pay, accuracy of merit rating and fairness of promotional procedures were major contributors of organisational commitment as compared to personal and job characteristics.

Gaertner and Nollen (1989) found that employees' commitment was enhanced by favourable perceptions of the organisation's HRM practices, such as internal promotion, training and development and employment security. On the basis of these findings, Gaertner and Nollen report that "psychological commitment is higher among employees who believe they are being treated as resources to be developed rather than commodities to buy and sell" (p. 987). Meyer and Smith (2000) found that affective commitment and normative commitment had significant positive correlations with all the HRM practices (i.e. performance appraisal, benefits, training and career development) while continuance commitment did not have a significant correlation with the same HRM variables. Meyer and Smith concluded that fair and supportive HRM practices denoted the organisation's support for the employees, which in turn, fostered a reciprocal attachment and loyalty by the employees.

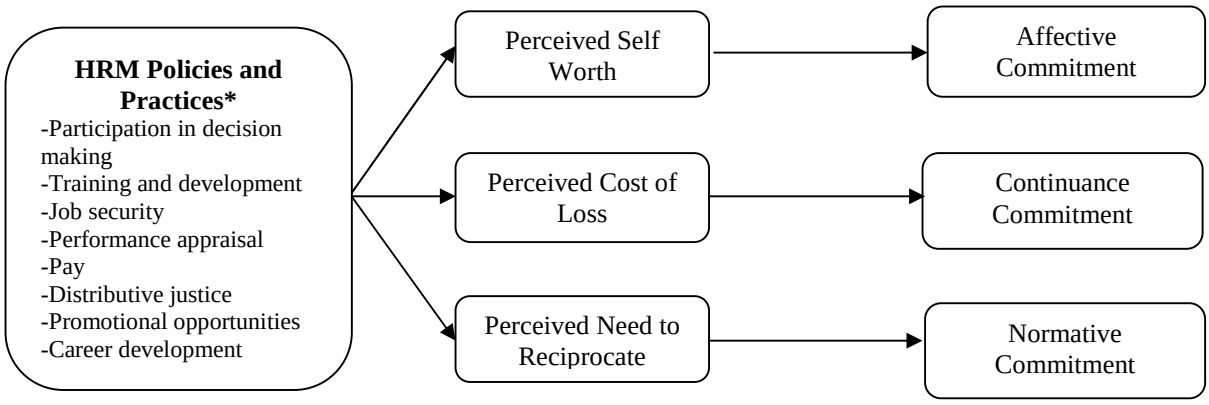
Wood and Albanese (1995) in their study of 135 manufacturing plants in the UK, found that the most popular high commitment management practices on the shop floor were centred on the use of selection for trainability, team working and group problem-solving rather than performance-related pay or performance management. Similarly, Guthrie (2001) in a study of 164 New Zealand business firms, found that the use of

high-involvement work practices was associated with increase in productivity and employee retention unlike firms that were control-oriented whereby increase in employee retention was associated with a decrease in productivity. Huselid (1995) in a study of 968 US organisations, found that the simultaneous use of certain high performance work practices relating to employee skills, organisational structures and employee motivation, was significantly related to lower employee turnover, greater productivity and financial performance.

In a study of steel mini-mills in the US, Arthur (1994) found that commitment-type HR systems were associated with higher productivity, lower scrap rates and lower employee turnover than control-type systems. Ichniowski *et al.*, (1997) in a study investigating steel production lines identified seven innovative work practices areas which included incentive compensation plans, teamwork, job flexibility, employment security, training, extensive recruiting and selection and labour-management communication.

Meyer and Allen (1997) have suggested that various HRM practices can influence and produce different forms of organisational commitment depending on how they are perceived by the employee. For instance, employees who receive training might perceive the organisation as valuing them resulting in strong affective commitment. The same HR practice could lead to the development of continuance commitment if the employee perceives the newly acquired skills as being organisation-specific while normative commitment may develop if the training was paid for by the organisation. In this regard, Meyer and Allen have presented a simplified model of the relationship between HR practices and multidimensional organisational commitment, as shown in Figure 5.1 below.

Figure 5.1: HRM practice and commitment: A simplified model



Notes: * - List of HRM practices has been added by the researcher

Source: Meyer and Allen (1997, p. 69)

Although there are numerous research studies on organisational commitment, few empirical studies have examined the impact of HR practices on organisational commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Meyer and Smith, 2000). Instead most of the existing studies have focused mainly on affective commitment thus creating a gap in the literature (Oglivie, 1986; Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Paul and Anantharaman, 2004; Walumbwa *et al*., 2007).

Another area of concern in the research investigating 'high commitment' HRM is methodological. Most research studies have focused almost exclusively on managerial perceptions of HR practices (Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Wood and Albanese, 1995; Wood and de Menezes, 1998). It is possible however, that the perceptions of management and employees regarding the nature of HR practices differ (Gallie *et al*, 2001). Furthermore, the concept of commitment depicts an individual's attitude towards the organisation and therefore commitment can only be assumed to exist if the actual commitment levels among a workforce are assessed. This means that reference to 'high commitment' HR practices based on research that is guided by managerial perceptions may be misleading. Only a small number of studies have addressed both organisational and individual perspectives on organisational commitment (e.g. Cully *et al*., 1999). Similarly, Truss (2001) has argued against the use of a single respondent (usually the HR director) instead of the use of multiple respondents which would enable the researcher to find any possible disconnect between the 'rhetoric' of HRM as expressed by the human resource department and the 'reality' expressed by the employees. In this regard, this research will be

conducted from the perspective of academic and administrative employees in different employment ranks.

5.5.2 Challenges facing human resource management in Africa

Research studies in HRM and employment related issues have received considerable attention in Europe, America and other industrialised countries of the world. It is only in the last three decades that some interest has been directed at the status of HRM in developing countries. Newly industrialised countries in Asia which are perceived as a major source of competition to Western economies, are drawing much attention from both Western and Asian writers under the banner of international HRM (Horwitz *et al*., 2002) while less developed countries especially those in sub-Saharan Africa, and Kenya in particular have received limited attention (Debrah, 2007). Instead, enormous amount of work on sub-Saharan African countries has been carried out on issues such as economic development, trade, foreign aid, eradication of poverty, disease and various factors such as economic mismanagement, political ineptitude and corruption which have affected economic and industrial development (Kamoche, Muuka, Horwitz and Debrah, 2004).

Although the effective management of human resources is critical in the successful management and development of organisations, several studies have documented the problems and challenges that are affecting most organisations in Africa (Kamoche *et al.*, 2004b; Tessema and Soeters, 2006). Some of these challenges include inappropriate management practices, weak and inefficient decision making, poor investment planning, low productivity and overstaffing, political patronage and governmental interference, inability to fire people, inadequate and non-competitive rewards, particularistic recruitment procedures that includes nepotism and other forms of favouritism among other factors (Kamoche, 1997; Kamoche, 2001; Mulinge, 2001; Kamoche *et al*., 2004; Tessema and Soeters, 2006).

As a result of these challenges, most organisations, especially the public sector in Africa have been unable to attract, motivate and retain their employees resulting in high turnover and 'brain drain' levels as most trained employees seek greener pastures in other countries in Africa or overseas (Kamoche *et al*., 2004a; Tetty, 2006). In

addition, most employees in the public sector have been found to engage in practices such as moonlighting and corrupt rent-seeking practices with an aim of improving their living standards and ultimately compromising their loyalty and commitment to their organisations (Tessema and Soeters, 2006). In order for the African public sector to move away from this culture of failure and managerial ineptitude, it is crucial that it strengthens the human resource function, which is often lowly regarded in organisations (Kamoche, 1997).

As discussed in Section 5.4 above, various Western studies have stressed the importance of effective management of human resources to organisations and their role in enhancing employees' commitment and job satisfaction (Arthur, 1994; Delery and Doty, 1996; Pfeffer, 1998). Very few studies have been conducted in the area of HRM in the Kenyan context and these are briefly discussed below.

Mulinge and Mueller (1998) using a sample of 1211 respondents, examined factors in the workplace that affected job satisfaction among agricultural technicians in Kenya. The study found that upward communication, task significance, perceived fair treatment in the workplace, career growth, job variety, adequate promotional opportunities, job security, co-workers support, low role ambiguity and adequate resources were significant predictors of job satisfaction such that employees who were satisfied with these factors had higher levels of job satisfaction. The study concluded that the exchange-based model of satisfaction effectively explained satisfaction in developing countries as well as developed countries. According to Mulinge and Mueller, the same basic social processes that produce job satisfaction in the developed countries are the same factors operating in different environments to produce job satisfaction among agricultural technicians in Kenya. Contrary to previous studies, the study found that participation in decision making and autonomy were not significant predictors of job satisfaction. Despite the westernisation of the work culture in Kenya, Mulinge and Mueller found that "politics" played a major role in the decision making process in the work environment in Kenya, so that innovative employees were vulnerable because they could be penalised for decisions their superiors were not happy with – decision making in this case placed employees in a position of accountability which made them vulnerable to criticism and reprisals.

Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang and Lawler (2005) using a sample of 158 bankers from

Kenya and 189 bankers from the United States, compared the effect of transformational leadership on organisational commitment and job satisfaction in the two distinct cultures. The results showed that transformational leadership was a strong positive predictor of organisational commitment, satisfaction with supervisor and satisfaction with work in general among employees in Kenya and the U. S. Although the study did not find any significant differences on the effect of transformational leadership on organisational commitment and job satisfaction in the two cultures, the results showed that transformational leadership accounted for more variance in the U.S. than in the Kenyan sample. Despite cultural differences between the two contexts, transformational leadership was an important factor in motivating employees. Although one might expect transformational leadership not to be compatible with the Kenyan culture which is high on both collectivism and power distance, Walumbwa and colleagues identified several conflicting factors at work which have shaped Kenya's management systems, for instance, bureaucracy rooted in the legacy of British colonial rule, traditional Kenyan values rooted in the extended family practices and Western business practices (promoted by multinational corporations and Kenyan managers educated in the West).

Nyambegera, Sparrow and Daniels (2000) examined the impact of cultural value orientations on employees' preferences for the design of individual HRM practices in Kenya. Using a sample of 247 employees from eight firms in the manufacturing and processing sector, Nyambegera and colleagues found that Kenyan employees preferred to be involved in decisions that affected their welfare, which is contrary to earlier studies which found that employees from developing countries were detached from the decision-making process and were socialised to be passive and reactive to tasks. In relation to predictability of HR rewards, the study found that employees preferred predictable rewards and incentives as the employee was assured of a secure future since obligations to kith and kin is the responsibility of the employee. In relation to HR empowerment, the study found that employees preferred to be empowered so as to reduce the fear created by those in authority. Nyambegera *et al*. (2000) concluded from their study that adapting American HRM models with US-based values to developing economies was inappropriate.

5.5.3 Selected human resource management practices

Various researchers have identified several HRM practices as predictors of organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Pfeffer, 1998; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Meyer and Smith, 2000). The following HRM practices, which are most critical to employees in higher education institutions in Kenya, have been identified as antecedents of organisational commitment: employee participation, training and development, performance appraisal, job security, reward management and internal career opportunities. Unlike other HRM studies, recruitment and selection have been deliberately omitted from this study because recruitment in the public sector was frozen by the World Bank during the implementation of the SAPs in the early 1990s and has only been lifted recently (Kathuri, 2006).

5.5.3.1. Employee participation

Participation in decision making is the act of sharing decision making with others to achieve organisational objectives (Scott-Ladd and Marshall, 2004). Townley (1994) has suggested that information provided to employees which is narrow in scope, restricted to the task at hand or disjointed and unrelated will not assist in the promotion of commitment to the organisation. On the other hand, communication which is open, interactive, persuasive, co-ordinated and integrated with other HR policies is more likely to promote identification with and commitment to the organisation (Thornhill, Lewis and Saunders, 1996). Organisations that share information on matters such as financial performance, strategy and operational measures convey to its employees that they are trusted (Pfeffer and Veiga, 1999).

Studies have found that participation in decision making is a positive predictor of organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Mayer and Schoorman, 1998; McElroy, 2001). According to McElroy (2001) participation can increase affective and normative commitment when employees are involved in the decision making process. Organisations that give their employees more responsibility and autonomy are perceived to show trust in their employees thus creating a sense of attachment and obligation on the part of the employee. Scott-Ladd and Marshall (2004) argue that although employees'

contributions to decisions affecting their work improve their ability to be effective, it also adds to their workload.

Cotton *et al*. (1988, p. 17) found that the highest satisfaction, commitment and performance outcomes were derived from participation whereby employees had a "voice" or "say" in decisions that affected them at the work place. Therefore, organisations that change from a system of hierarchical control to one in which employees are encouraged to demonstrate initiative clearly shows that the organisation is supportive of its employees and values their contributions (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

In an online survey study of 216 academics from US business schools, Day and Peluchette (2009) found that academics with longer tenure at their school were less positive about the degree to which faculty were informed ($\beta = -.30$, $p < .05$), while older faculty perceived that they were better informed ($\beta = .27$, $p < .05$). In order for the faculty to make appropriate decisions on issues such as tenure, performance review and governance, university leadership need to share and make available significant information required by the faculty (Day and Peluchette, 2009).

The importance of communication systems within the organisation has been heightened in recent years due to a realisation that commitment to the goals of the organisation is important for organisational effectiveness (Pfeffer, 1998; Walton, 1985; Cully *et al*., 1999). Young, Worchel and Woehr (1998) in a study of 64 respondents from a public service department in America, found that employees were more satisfied with their jobs when they had inputs in making suggestions and when they were kept informed of organisational plans, policies and developments that affected their jobs.

5.5.3.2. Training and development

Training and development represents an area within HR practices that can have a significant impact on employee commitment to the organisation. Although training and development programmes may act as inducements, they may also be viewed as investments in the relationship between organisations and individuals which can

contribute to employees' organisational commitment (Farrell and Rusbult, 1981). Recent research suggests that 'high commitment' HR practices, such as employee development affect organisational outcomes by shaping employee behaviours and attitudes (Whitener, 2001; Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Wood and de Menezes, 1998).

Provision of training opportunities may be interpreted by employees as an indication of the organisation's commitment to its human resources leading to a strong psychological bonding with the organisation and a willingness to expend extra effort to increase the organisation's effectiveness (Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Arthur, 1994; Wood and de Menezes, 1998; Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 1991). Through training, employees may develop a positive self-concept and a sense of competence resulting from the employment relationship, leading to greater identity with the organisation (Morris and Sherman, 1981; Randall and O'Driscoll, 1997).

McElroy (2001) observes that organisations that extensively train their employees create a reputation for valuing and developing employees and are able to attract a cadre of highly skilled employees. Such organisations send a clear message to their employees that they are committed to the development of their people leading to high affective and normative commitment. However, organisations that provide company-specific training are likely to induce continuance commitment because the training makes employees more valuable to their existing employers than to potential employers (McElroy, 2001; Gaertner and Nollen, 1989). Such skills constitute sunk costs in terms of time and effort that an employee stands to lose if he/she leaves the organisation. Such employees are 'betting' that the time and energy invested will pay off with continued employment in that organisation (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

Lee and Bruvold (2003) in a study of nurses from USA and Singapore, found that perceived investment in employee development had a strong positive correlation with affective commitment and a weaker correlation with continuance commitment. Failure by organisations to provide adequate training and development opportunities was likely to result in low morale, decreased commitment and high turnover rates in the long-term. In addition, employees who quit the organisation take with them important knowledge which has taken years to develop. This scenario is made worse

if the skills are scarce in the market and costly to develop. In Kenyan universities, for instance, the highest turnover rates are in the faculties of medicine, engineering, science and information technology (Abagi, 1998).

Day and Peluchette (2009) found that faculty members were not enthusiastic about the training and development offered by their schools. Respondents who had worked for a long time in their business schools were less positive about the training and development systems ($\beta = -.24$, $p < 0.05$). Faculty perceived that avenues for skill improvement in technological developments (i.e. training in enhanced classroom technology and other forms of instructional support) were lacking. In addition, Day and Peluchette report that lack of formal training of business school administrators (i.e. Deans and department chairs) was likely to undermine the business schools ability to cope with the increasing pace of change in business and the need for schools to be responsive to not only the needs of their students but also to the community and their institution.

One of the problems arising from organisational training is identifying the quality and relevance of the training being provided. Marchington and Wilkinson (2005) found that most organisations were only concerned with the quantitative aspects of training, (i.e. the cost and time invested) resulting in workers who were overqualified for their jobs leading to poor motivation and low morale. Truss *et al*. (1997, p.16) report that even where training opportunities are provided by the organisation, there is often "no explicit aim within the training of increasing the individual's skill base or broadening their experience".

Another disadvantage in relation to training is that these activities are often regarded as a significant cost rather than an investment by organisations. According to Kamoche *et al*. (2004b), training in organisations in Kenya is mainly treated as a cost and with the volatile economic situation in Kenya, managers are finding it difficult to view training as an investment because of its uncertain value. Where training exists, it is usually limited to equipping the employees with narrowly-defined, firm-specific skills that facilitate the attainment of short-term objectives. This is consistent with 'traditional' HRM whereby training is viewed as a 'burden' while training policies are unclear and vague (Kamoche, 2000b). Tessema and Soeters (2006) also report that

public sector employees in most developing countries who have received training paid for by their governments have been unable to utilise their expertise due to unattractive compensation and therefore opt to move to the private sector or overseas. Therefore, in order for organisations to develop and raise the level of productivity, there is a need to transform the way they develop people by nurturing cultures that value contribution from their employees, undertake cost-effective training activities that are geared to enhancing labour productivity and product quality (Kamoche *et al*., 2004b).

5.5.3.3. Job security

An employee is considered to enjoy job security when he/she remains employed with the same organisation without a reduction of seniority, pay, pension benefits and other benefits (Yousef, 1998). However, since the late 1970s, economic recessions, industrial restructuring, technological changes and intensified global competition have dramatically changed the nature of work (Buitendach and De Witte, 2005). These changes have forced organisations to improve effectiveness and streamline operations through downsizing, outsourcing and rationalisation, bringing to an end the promise of job security, lifelong employment and defined career paths. For many employees, these changes in working life have caused feelings of insecurity regarding the nature and future existence of their jobs, leading to negative employee work attitudes, increased job dissatisfaction, low organisational commitment and increased withdrawal behaviour (Buitendach and De Witte, 2005; Cully *et al*., 1999). The provision of employment security under these conditions can, therefore, be perceived as a commitment by the employer to its employees (Pfeffer, 1999; McElroy, 2001).

Employees who are assured of employment security may develop commitment and be satisfied with their jobs because of the longevity of the employment relationship (Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Hallier and Lyon, 1996; Yousef, 1998; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999). Employees who are provided with job security will expend extra effort and are likely to develop stronger identification with the values and goals of the organisations. Pfeffer (1998, p. 66) states that laying off people too readily constitutes a cost for firms that have done a good job selecting, training and developing their workforce and that "… layoffs put important strategic assets on the street for the competition to employ". Organisations should therefore strive to reduce job losses

where possible and treat workers as a critical asset and not as a variable cost (Marchington and Wilkinson, 2005).

McElroy (2001) found that employment security was likely to induce several forms of commitment. For instance, affective commitment may arise since continued membership with an organisation may result in increased belief in organisational values and therefore a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation. Normative commitment may develop if the employee feels obliged to return the loyalty exhibited by the organisation through the assurance of continued employment. Finally, continuance commitment may develop due to the fact that leaving the organisation would result in the loss of a secure employment relationship or result in unemployment due to the lack of alternative opportunities elsewhere.

The implementation of the Public Sector Reforms in Kenya in the 1990s, resulting in the retrenchment of thousands of employees may have eroded employees' job security and therefore negatively affected their commitment to their universities. This is consistent with Snyder, Osland and Hunter (1996) study of Latin American public and private sector organisations, which found that job security was lower in the public sector due to organisational reforms which resulted in redundancies.

5.5.3.4. Performance Appraisals

Performance appraisal is among the most important HR practices because of its ability to provide valuable performance information for a number of HR activities such as allocation of rewards, promotion, assessment of training needs and feedback on development (Taylor, Tracy, Renard, Harrison and Carroll, 1995; Huselid, 1995; Kuvaas, 2006). Consequently, they enable organisations to retain, motivate and develop productive employees.

Studies have shown that satisfaction with performance appraisal has a significant influence on job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Paul and Anantharaman, 2003; Kuvaas, 2006). Some of the characteristics of performance-related practices that have been associated with employee commitment include the perceived accuracy of merit assessments and feedback concerning performance

objectives (Oglivie, 1986). Despite the importance of performance appraisals to organisations, they continue to pose challenges to managers and the employees who use them. Banks and Murphy (1985) cited by Taylor *et al*. (1995, p.495) report that:

> Organisations continue to express disappointment in performance appraisal systems despite advances in appraisal technology. Appraisal reliability and validity still remain major problems in most appraisal systems and new (and presumably improved) appraisal systems are often met with substantial resistance...

Other problems that afflict performance appraisal process include subjectivity and intentional as well as inadvertent bias (Field and Holley, 1982; Sudarsan, 2009). Therefore, since performance assessments often play a role in decisions related to training and career development, promotions, rewards and redundancy programmes, perceptions of fairness must be a necessary consideration. Managers therefore must not be seen to deliberately omit potentially important performance criteria during assessment or include irrelevant factors which might result in resentment leading to low commitment, job dissatisfaction or high turnover. According to Allan (1994) a systematic performance appraisal programme should be objective, free of biases and custom-designed to fit the specific needs of the organisation.

Kamoche *et al*. (2004b) report that performance appraisals in organisations in Kenya have been complicated by cultural and social issues. For instance, employees who know influential people in the organisation who can protect them, tend to be spared when performance appraisals are used to select workers for redundancy, thus placing politics and good interpersonal relationships above organisational goal-oriented performance. Similarly, Nyambegera (2002) observed that ethnicity and kinship affiliation play a significant role in performance appraisal in Kenya as they have been used by some bosses to settle personal scores against the appraisees. Arthur, Woehr, Akande and Strong (1995) in a study of 38 organisations in Ghana and 128 organisations from Nigeria, found that there were no set performance goals and that the performance criteria were often vaguely defined. This vagueness in performance criteria encourages subjectivity in the performance appraisal process. In addition, African cultural norms have been found to have a negative impact on the appraisal process (Aryee, 2004). For example, the tendency to avoid confrontation makes critical or negative face-to-face feedback an unpleasant task for managers. Tessema

and Soeters (2006) in a study of Eritrean civil servants found that appraisal systems are often one-sided whereby the supervisor's view of the subordinates' performance prevails.

5.5.3.5. Pay

Employment represents an exchange relationship between an employer and an employee (Singh, Fujita and Norton, 2004). In pure economic terms, monetary compensation has been perceived as fundamental to the exchange relationship between employers and employees since it can be measured more objectively (Singh *et al*., 2004). Employees are therefore able to evaluate their perceptions of equity or justice in the organisational context. The equity theory posits that people evaluate fairness by comparing the inputs they contribute (i.e. skills and efforts) and the outcomes they receive (i.e. pay) to the corresponding inputs and outcomes of referent groups within the organisation and in the external market (Greenberg, 1990). A state of equity will be attained if the perceived ratio of outcomes to inputs favourably compares to the outcome-input ratio of referent others (Lambert, 2003; Singh *et al*., 2004; Lambert *et al*., 2007).

Levine (1993) suggests that where inequity exists, employees may attempt to reduce the distress by changing the perceptions of either their own or reference group's inputs and outcomes, altering their inputs such as their effort or their outcomes (e.g. getting a pay raise or quitting the organisation). Further, whereas underpayment is likely to result in lower effort, dissatisfaction and low commitment, perceptions of overpayment will result in employees raising the evaluation of their own inputs to restore perceived equity.

Studies have shown that pay are an important determinant of organisational commitment and satisfaction as they denote organisational support and dependability (Guthrie, 2001; Levine, 1993; Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Mottaz, 1988; Mowday *et al*., 1982). In a study of 250 employees of a manufacturing firm, Oliver (1990) found a positive correlation between work rewards and commitment but a negative correlation with turnover intentions. Singh *et al*. (2004) found that nursing home administrators had a higher degree of satisfaction with their pay when the organisation

provided adequate opportunities for growth and when compensation practices included bonuses. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that although salary is considered as a "side-bet" and therefore likely to be highly related to calculative commitment, it is also positively related to attitudinal commitment in terms of self-esteem that the employee derived from it. Morris, Lydka and Fenton-O'Creevy (1993) found that employee perceptions of pay or salary influenced employees' commitment just after they started work but this "wore" off as they progressed into their employment. This suggests that as employees move up the organisation ladder, the fulfilled extrinsic rewards (e.g. pay) are no longer motivators for job satisfaction.

Studies have shown that pay is likely to induce different forms of commitment (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Randall and O'Driscoll, 1999; McElroy, 2001). Satisfactory pay may serve as an indication of how much an organisation values its people leading to high affective commitment. At the same time, employees who are paid high salaries may perceive a loss of control over their high compensation should they decide to leave the organisation resulting in high continuance commitment. Iverson and Buttigieg point out that merely introducing higher wages will increase an individual's perception of low job alternatives but has no effect on improving the alignment of employee's goals with the organisation. However, pay is not likely to influence normative commitment since pay is earned due to employee's performance and not given. On the contrary, Meyer and Smith (2000) found that the provision of benefits is likely to be perceived by employees as part of the psychological contract, thus creating an obligation on the part of the employee to reciprocate, resulting in high normative commitment.

In examining faculty workload and compensation of Australian academics, Comm and Mathaisel (2003) found that 51% of the faculty did not believe that they were compensated fairly, relative to those at other comparable institutions. As a result, 50% of the respondents felt the need to work outside their institutions to earn extra income. This need presents a challenge to the academics loyalty to their university since they are employed to work full-time in their institution but also have to work elsewhere. In this regard, the academic is likely to put minimum effort in their main job which in the end may affect their teaching and research objectives.

Mulinge (2000) found a negative correlation between pay and intent to stay. Whereas ordinarily pay is expected to increase employee intent to stay with the employing organisation, Mulinge points out that since the mandatory retirement age in Kenya is 55 years, most employees perceive self-employment as the 'smart' way to a financially secure old age. Therefore, higher pay allows employees to save enough money which will enable them to quit their jobs to become self-employed and financially secure after retirement age.

Salaries in public universities in Kenya are based on a structured salary scale with a pre-determined yearly increment. However, the erosion of the absolute values of salaries, especially in the public sector relative to the private sector, has negatively affected employee motivation and therefore resulted in highly-qualified personnel preferring to join the private sector where they expect to be suitably remunerated. The problem of low wages and fringe benefits in the public sector is compounded by unfair practices in the remuneration of workers due to unclear and inconsistent wage policies resulting in arbitrary pay differences for different cadres of staff (Kamoche *et al*., 2004).

5.5.3.6 Distributive justice

Distributive justice is concerned with fairness in the allocation of outcomes such as pay and promotions. Discussion of distributive justice in an HR context is often grounded on Adam's (1965) equity theory (Greenberg, 1987; Lambert, 2003; Parker and Kohlmeyer, 2005; DeConinck and Johnson, 2009). The equity theory holds that employees brings inputs into the organisation such as education, effort, experience among others and in return, expect to receive fair outcomes from the organisation, such as pay, promotions, accurate and timely feedback or recognition among others (Greenberg, 1990; Lambert *et al*., 2007). As such, employees determine the fairness of their input/outcome ratio by comparing the ratio of their outcomes to the ratios of referent others such as co-workers. Therefore, perceptions of unfairness will lead to frustrations and resentment resulting in loss of productivity, loyalty and attachment to the organisation or a decision to seek alternative employment elsewhere.

Studies have shown that distributive justice is not constrained to solely focusing upon employee rewards or favourable outcomes but is also concerned with punishment in a

fair and just manner (Lambert, 2003; Haar and Spell, 2009; Lambert *et al*., 2010). Hence, distributive justice would be achieved if the rewards system treats and punishes performers and under-performers equitably. The focus, therefore, is based on fairness and not always whether this is applied positively. In this regard, distributive justice is based upon the exchange principle, such that "people look at what they give, in exchange for what they receive" (Lambert, 2003, p. 157). Employees are therefore likely to develop a positive attitude towards the organisation if the outcomes (e.g. pay, benefits, evaluation, job assignments and promotions among others) are realistically deserved.

Fairness by the organisation in the provision of employee rewards and other outcomes will have a significant impact on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and employee retention. Employees who perceive that their universities are fair and just in dealing with the workers are likely to encourage trust and loyalty, resulting in increased organisational commitment (Lambert, 2003). This means that perception of the university as being unjust, untrustworthy and unfair is unlikely to encourage any trust or commitment from its employees. In relation to job satisfaction, most employees have career aspirations and ambitions that they expect to be met by their universities over a period of time (Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1990). However, with perceptions of unfairness of organisational outcomes, most employees may view their jobs as dead-ends, ultimately affecting their satisfaction with their jobs (Lambert, 2003).

In a survey study of 184 employees from the industrial sector in New Zealand, Haar and Spell (2009) found that distributive justice was significantly positively related to job satisfaction ($\beta = .64$, $p < 0.001$) and negatively related to turnover intentions ($\beta = -.48$, $p < 0.001$). This suggests that employees who perceive their rewards and pay system as fair and just will report greater satisfaction with their jobs and lower intentions to leave their organisation.

Al-Omari *et al*. (2008) found that distributive justice had a positive indirect effect on academics intent to stay through organisational commitment ($\beta = 0.076$, $p < 0.05$). This means that higher levels of distributive justice were associated with higher levels of commitment which in turn strengthened intent to stay. The findings suggest that

unjust reward outcomes may result in a decline in faculty commitment and intent to stay.

5.5.3.7 Promotional opportunities

Promotional opportunities refer to the degree an employee perceives his or her chances to grow and be promoted within the organisation (Lambert, Hogan and Jiang, 2008). Some studies have found that promotion procedures and the presence of promotional opportunities or career paths have a positive relationship with organisational commitment (Iles *et al*., 1990; Snell and Dean, 1992; Kalleberg and Mastekaasaz, 1994; Young *et al*., 1998; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999). Accordingly, employees expect to work in jobs that provide them with opportunities to be promoted to new and challenging positions (Lambert *et al*., 2008). Lawler (1971) contends that employees will only work hard to get promoted if they perceive that positions are available and awarded on the basis of work performance. In a study of 1649 managers of large business companies, Grusky (1966) found that managers with moderate mobility were less committed to the organisation than managers who were most mobile during their careers.

Perceptions of few or unfair promotional opportunities have been found to result in negative attitudes towards work or the organisation (Chacko, 1982; Iles *et al*., 1990; Schwarzwald, Kolosowsky and Shalit, 1992). Perceptions of the fairness of promotion procedures can alienate employees who were passed over especially if they perceive the procedures to have been unfair (Iles *et al*., 1990). Therefore, employees who received a promotion are not only likely to experience equity regarding their treatment in the organisation but also reported higher levels of organisational commitment.

McElroy, Morrow and Mullen (1996) in a study of 1029 respondents from a US state agency, found that mobility practices were related to work-related attitudes and therefore, underscored the need to carefully manage the internal reassignment of employees and to assist employees in setting realistic internal mobility expectations. McElroy and colleagues observed that meeting both mobility expectations and making sure that employees perceive the reason for denying their promotion request to be fair, had a positive effect on the employees work attitudes. Meyer *et al*. (1989)

found that continuance commitment was higher among employees who were rated as less promotable by their superiors. Organisations that have firm internal labour markets (FILMs), characterised by availability of promotional opportunities and mobility up the organisational ladder, enhanced employee loyalty and attachment while absence or blockage of opportunities for advancement led to lower organisational commitment and was associated with other negative work attitudes and behaviours (Kalleberg and Mastekaasaz, 1994).

In a study of 313 Eritrean civil servants, Tessema and Soeters (2006) found a negative correlation between promotions and employee work attitudes. Tessema and Soeters noted that respondents with better performance records perceived that promotional practices were not based on written, formal policies but on seniority which could be influenced by non-merit considerations such as favouritism, nepotism and political loyalty.

5.5.3.8 Career development

Increasing global competition in the business environment and rapid advances in technology have meant that organisations have had to restructure or enter into merger and acquisition programmes which have in effect removed the notion of "career-for-life" and introduced the rhetoric of the "new" career (Sturges, Guest and Mackenzie-Davey, 2000). Studies show that organisational careers are changing from the traditional full-time jobs which had clearly chartered career development programmes to becoming "portable" and "boundaryless" (Cappelli, 1999; Sturges *et al*., 2000).

Rajan (1997) found that the arrival of 'lean production' programmes requiring fewer staff, performance-related pay, fewer management layers, outsourcing of non-core activities among others, has undermined employee job security and career progression. Therefore, unlike the past when employees had clearly defined career paths and jobs-for-life, the trend now emphasises employability, self development and individual responsibility for career development. Employees are therefore expected to manage their own careers, even if this takes them outside the organisation (Sturges *et al*., 2000; Rajan, 1997).

Studies adopting Allen and Meyer's (1990) multidimensional view of commitment found that career development practices were best predictors of affective and normative commitment because they were critical in preparing employees for a future in the organisation (Taormina, 1999; Meyer and Smith, 2000). Employees with good career opportunities in their organisations were more likely to feel an obligation to their employing organisation and develop a strong emotional attachment to the organisation.

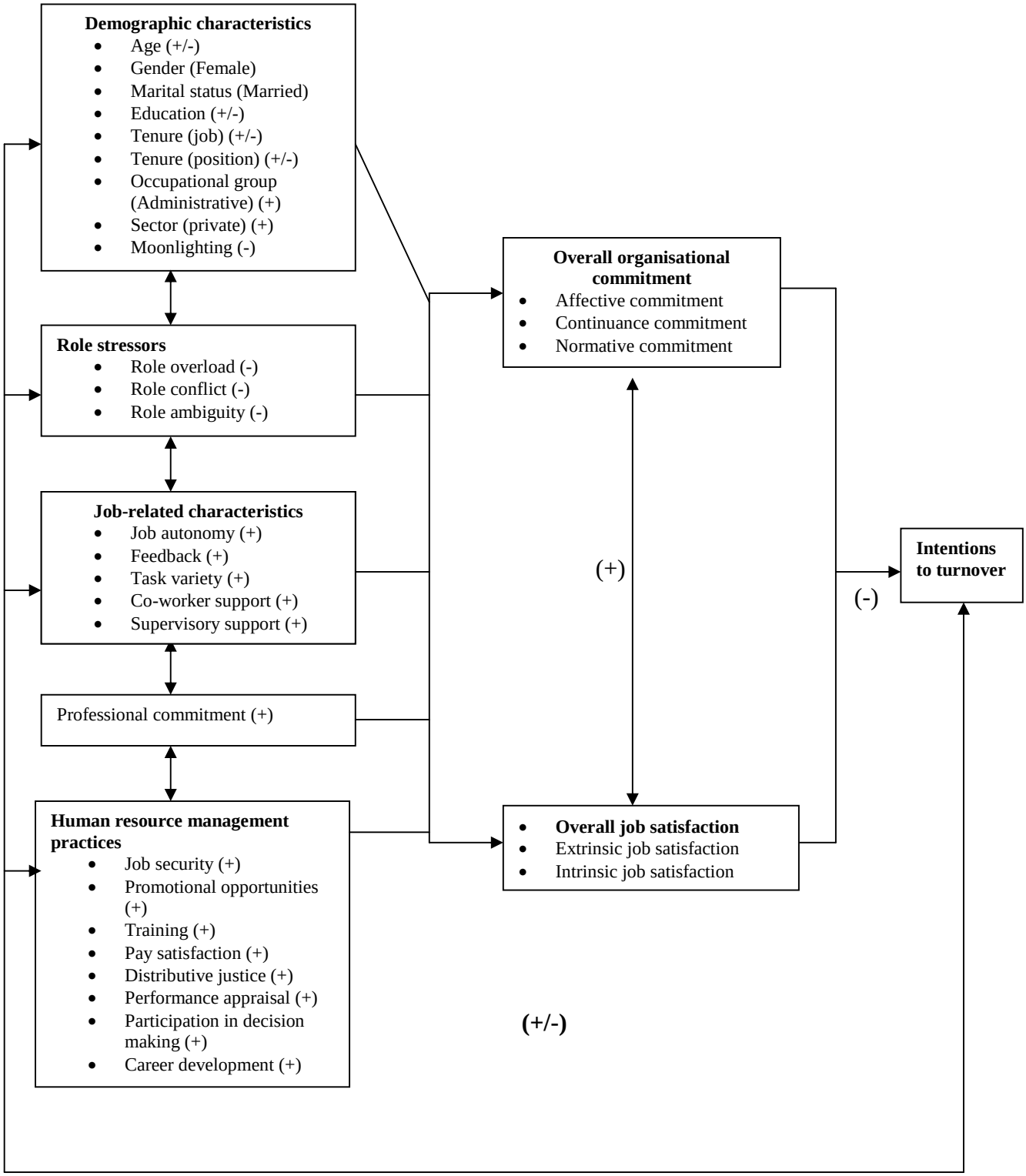
Meyer and Smith (2000) note that organisations that take an active role in helping employees to prepare for advancement in the organisation in a way that creates perception of support, might foster a stronger bond to the organisation than those that do not. Paul and Anatharaman (2003) found that career development had a direct influence on an employee's commitment to the organisation, which in turn affects employee retention and employee productivity. Sturges *et al*. (2000) observe that failure by organisations to meet employees' career development expectations is likely to have detrimental effects on the level of organisational commitment.

5.6. Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

From the literature review, the conceptual framework is presented below. The present study has followed the conceptual framework developed by Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta-analytic study. From this study, the dependent variables were identified as organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to turnover. In addition, the independent variables were grouped under demographic characteristics (i.e. age, gender, marital status, tenure and education), role states (i.e. role overload, role conflict and role ambiguity), job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, feedback, task variety, co-worker and supervisory support) and professional commitment. Human resource management practices were also included as independent variables. Although there is a growing body of research studies examining the link between HRM and employee work attitudes such organisational commitment and job satisfaction (e.g. Oglivie, 1986; Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Paul and Anantharaman, 2003; Malhotra *et al*., 2007), there is little consensus as to which practices should be included in the analysis. Following a detailed review of the literature, this study has used HRM practices that have been identified by advocates of the 'high commitment'

approach (i.e. MacDuffie, 1995; Delery and Doty, 1996; Wood and De Menezes, 1998; Pfeffer, 1998; Marchington and Grugulis, 2000). From these studies, the following HRM practices were identified as important predictors of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions: job security, promotion, training and development, pay, distributive justice, performance appraisal, participation in decision making and career development.

Figure 5.2: A Conceptual model of the relationships among demographic characteristics, job-related characteristics, role stressors, human resource management practices, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to turnover.



The conceptual framework in Figure 5.2 is a diagrammatic explanation of the relationships among the various variables of the study. The framework suggests an interrelationship among four groups of independent variables, namely; demographic characteristics, role stressors, job characteristics and HRM practices with the dependent variables namely; organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. It is conceptualised that each of the personal characteristics and work-related factors will have different implications for organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

A comprehensive review of the literature in Chapters four and five based on the objectives of the study has enabled the formulation of the following hypotheses to be tested in this study:

Hypothesis One:

H1a: The three-component model of organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment) will be applicable to a Kenyan context

H1b: Continuance commitment in the Kenyan context will consist of two dimensions, namely: 'high personal sacrifice' and 'low perceived alternatives'.

Hypothesis Two:

H2a: Employees involved in moonlighting activities will have lower levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction and higher levels of intentions to turnover.

H2b: Demographic characteristics (i.e. age, gender, marital status, tenure, education) will be significantly related to organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Hypothesis Three:

H3a: Role stressors (i.e. role overload, role ambiguity and role conflict) will be significant negative predictors of organisational commitment (i.e. affective, normative and continuance commitment) and job satisfaction (i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction)

H3b: Role stressors (i.e. role overload, role ambiguity and role conflict) will be significant positive predictors of intentions to turnover.

H3c: Employees from public universities will have significantly higher levels of role stress than employee in private universities.

H3d: Role stress will be significantly higher among administrative employees than academic employees

Hypothesis Four:

H4a: Job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, feedback, task variety, co-worker and supervisory support) will be significant positive predictors of organisational commitment (i.e. affective, normative and continuance commitment) and job satisfaction (i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction).

H4b: Job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, feedback, task variety, co-worker and supervisory support) will be significant negative predictors of intentions to turnover.

H4c: Satisfaction with job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, feedback, task variety, co-worker and supervisory support) will be significantly higher in private universities than in public universities.

H4d: Academic employees will be more satisfied with their job characteristics than administrative employees.

H4e: Job characteristics will minimise the negative influence of role stressors on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to turnover.

Hypothesis Five:

H5a: Professional commitment will be a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment (i.e. affective, normative and continuance commitment) and job satisfaction (i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction) and a negative predictor of intentions to turnover.

H5b: Academics will have higher levels of professional commitment than administrative employees

Hypothesis Six:

H6a: Individual HRM practices (i.e. job security, promotional opportunities, training and development, pay, distributive justice, performance appraisal, participation in decision making and career development) will be significant positive predictors of organisational commitment (i.e. affective, normative and continuance commitment) and job satisfaction (i.e. extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction).

H6b: Individual HRM practices (i.e. job security, promotional opportunities, training and development, pay, distributive justice, performance appraisal, participation in decision making and career development) will be significant negative predictors of intentions to turnover.

H6c: Satisfaction with HRM practices will be significantly higher among employees from private universities than employees from public universities.

H6d: Academics will be more satisfied with their universities HRM practices than administrative employees.

Hypothesis Seven:

H7a: Employees from private universities will have significantly higher levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and are less likely to intend to turnover

than employees from public universities.

H7b: Academics will have higher levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and are more likely to intend to turnover than administrative employees.

Hypothesis Eight:

H8a: Demographic characteristics, role stressors, professional commitment, job characteristics and HRM practices are significant stronger predictors of (a) affective commitment (b) continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice and low perceived alternatives) (c) normative commitment, and (d) overall organisational commitment among academic employees than administrative employees in public and private universities.

H8b: Demographic characteristics, role stressors, professional commitment, job characteristics and HRM practices are significant stronger predictors of (a) extrinsic job satisfaction and (b) intrinsic job satisfaction among academic employees than administrative employees in public and private universities.

H8c: Demographic characteristics, role stressors, professional commitment, job characteristics and HRM practices will be significant stronger predictors of turnover intentions among academic employees than administrative employees in public and private universities.

Hypothesis Nine:

Organisational commitment and job satisfaction will be significant stronger negative predictors of turnover intentions among academic employees than administrative employees.

5.7. Conclusion

This chapter has presented a review of the literature on the relationships between organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions with demographic characteristics, job-related factors and HRM practices. The literature has shown that enriched jobs characterised by job autonomy, adequate feedback, task variety, supervisory and co-worker support have a direct positive effect on organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and a negative influence on intentions to leave the organisation. On the other hand, employees who experience work stress are less likely to perceive their jobs in a positive light, resulting in low levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and a high propensity to turnover. Although some studies have shown that professional commitment was in conflict with organisational commitment, other studies have shown that they are compatible. It is therefore, expected that professional commitment will have a positive effect on organisational commitment and job satisfaction and a negative effect on turnover intentions.

The chapter has identified two models of human resource management, namely, 'soft' and 'hard' HRM and the role that they play in the management of human resources in organisations. 'Soft' or 'high commitment' HRM endeavours to enhance organisational commitment by empowering, developing and trusting employees (Beer *et al*., 1984; Guest, 1987; Gould-Williams and Davies, 2005) while 'hard' HRM focuses on increasing efficiency and reducing direct labour costs through the application of rules and procedures that places emphasis on controlling workers (Fombrun *et al*., 1984; Armstrong, 2003; Gould-Williams and Davies, 2005). However, studies have shown that despite the distinctness of these two models, most organisations practice a mixture of the two approaches (Truss *et al*., 1997).

Several HRM practices which are likely to lead to positive work attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment have been identified (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Pfeffer, 1998; Meyer and Smith, 2000). Studies have shown that fair and supportive HRM practices are likely to denote organisational support which in turn fosters a reciprocal attachment and loyalty by the employees (Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Meyer and Smith, 2000).

However, the review of the literature has found that most of the studies have been carried out using samples from America, UK and emerging economies such as China. Limited studies were found to have been carried out in Africa and Kenya in particular. Whereas research studies from Western contexts may have found positive correlations between various HRM practices and facets of organisational commitment, the same may not be the case for universities in Kenya.

CHAPTER SIX

Research method

6.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research design and procedures of the study. The chapter is organised as follows: First, justification for the choice of cross-sectional design over longitudinal design; a rationale for the choice of methodology by firstly contrasting two philosophical paradigms namely; positivism and interpretivism. Secondly, data collection methods and sampling procedures are described. Lastly, questionnaire development, pilot testing and administration, reliability and validity of the measurement scales and data analysis techniques and ethical considerations are discussed.

6.2. Research Design

Research design is the plan and structure of investigation that enables the researcher to obtain answers to the research question (Kerlinger, 1986). The choice of a research design is guided by the purpose of the study, the type of investigation, the extent of researcher involvement, the stage of knowledge in the field, the time period over which the data is to be collected and the type of analysis to be carried out, that is, whether quantitative or qualitative (Sekaran, 2003).

6.2.1 Cross-sectional versus longitudinal research design

The cross-sectional research design, which is popularly used in most organisational commitment and other employee attitude studies, was used in this study. This choice was determined by three factors, namely, the purpose of the study, the time period over which the data was to be collected and the type of analysis. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005), a cross-sectional study is one that produces a ‘snapshot’ of a population at a particular point in time. In this study, data was collected from a large sample of academic and administrative employees from six universities in Kenya which were geographically scattered, within a period of five months. This is

contrary to longitudinal studies which involve the study of the same subjects over a long period of time which may take years (Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Cohen *et al*., 2005). Unlike cross-sectional studies, the strength of longitudinal studies lies in the fact that the researcher is able to identify patterns of developments or changes in the characteristics of the participants in the study. Further, time, which is always a limiting factor in cross-sectional studies, enables the researcher greater opportunity to observe trends and distinguish real change from chance occurrences (Cohen *et al*., 2005). However, longitudinal studies have their disadvantages. Firstly, they are time consuming and expensive because the researcher has to collect data over a long period of time. Secondly, sample mortality is likely to be high (Cohen *et al*., 2005). During the course of long-term study, subjects are likely to dropout or refuse to cooperate.

The main advantage of the cross-sectional research design for this study was that the researcher was able to collect and compare several variables in the study at the same time. In addition, the collection of data was less expensive in terms of time and cost; the researcher was also able to secure the cooperation of the respondents since the data was collected at one point in time; and finally, the analysis of the data was done more quickly using statistical software (SPSS).

Although the cross-sectional design was chosen for this study, the researcher encountered a few challenges in the implementation stage. Firstly, administering questionnaires to many people who were geographically scattered meant that the researcher had to frequently travel to these institutions or make constant follow-ups by telephone or in writing to ensure that the response rate was not low. Secondly, academics in public universities went on strike during the course of the data collection. The acrimonious strike which led to a three-month closure of the universities and sacking of some academics may have had a negative impact on the academics organisational commitment and job satisfaction. However, due to time and financial constraints, the researcher was unable to carry out the research over a long period of time so as to establish whether there were any changes in their commitment and job satisfaction over time (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007). In this case, a longitudinal research design would have been preferable for this study.

6.2.2 Philosophical underpinnings of research methods - positivism versus interpretivism

Researchers have, in recent years, raised questions about different approaches to social science research and what constitutes knowledge. This has been borne out of the broader debate about paradigms. Morgan (2007, p. 47) defines a paradigm as 'the set of beliefs and practices that guide a field'. According to Husen (1997) a paradigm determines the criteria according to which one selects and defines problems for inquiry and how one approaches these theoretically and methodologically. It is a shared sense of what scientific inquiry is, of what inquiry ought to be, a sense of what kind of reality is being investigated, and a sense of proper objects of inquiry and their character.

Paradigms are important to scientific communities because they shape the way researchers 'do' research. Paradigms are therefore useful because they direct the perspective from which research questions are asked, problems are investigated, research is designed as well as what methods are used and how data are collected, analysed and interpreted (Cody and Kenney, 2006). Social science research is characterised by two predominant paradigms that have been employed in research planning. According to Husen (1997, p.32),

> ... one is modelled on the natural sciences with an emphasis on empirical quantifiable observations which lend themselves to analyses by means of mathematical tools…The other paradigm is derived from the humanities with an emphasis on holistic and qualitative information and to interpretive approaches

These two paradigms are positivism and interpretivism, broadly grouped under the terms *quantitative* and *qualitative* research respectively. They differ on the basic underlying assumptions that ultimately guide the choices about research methodology and methods.

Positivists, on one hand, assume that there is a reality that exists beyond the human mind, a reality that is separate from the individual who observes it, and that it is this

reality that provides the foundation for human knowledge. This reality is perceived as being lawful and orderly, and through systematic observation and correct scientific methods (i.e. being objective), it is possible to explain, control and predict phenomena (Usher 1996). Positivists try to stand back and not affect their research findings, and in so doing, attempt to identify the key elements that need to be measured and demonstrate the validity of so doing.

The strengths of a positivist view lie in its emphasis on careful sampling, specifying what data is collected and how they are objectively analysed and interpreted. The paradigm's value is its emphasis on validity, reliability and comparability. Its particular advantage is that with careful sampling, the findings can be generalised and comparisons made. However, the weakness of positivism is that it is inadequate when dealing with social subject matters. It does not make possible the usage of personal knowledge and insight gained in social interaction.

On the other hand, interpretivism holds that reality is constructed and that this reality is influenced by social, cultural, ethnic and gender factors. In order to uncover people's beliefs and meanings, researchers often interact dialogically with the participants. Within this interrelationship, interpretivists accept the inseparable bond between values and facts and attempt to understand reality within a social context. However, from a positivist perspective, interpretivism is vulnerable to the criticism that the influence of the researcher is primarily related to their debating skills rather than to their expertise. Furthermore, in seeking to construct a shared social reality, interpretive methodologies do not distinguish between a biased interpretation of data and an unbiased interpretation. Although the interpretive perspective is highly appropriate in the complex and ever changing business environment, the question of generalisability of research that aims to capture the rich complexity of social situations becomes a challenge (Saunders *et al*., 2007).

6.2.3. Quantitative versus qualitative research methods

Data collection methods or techniques fall into either of two categories, namely qualitative or quantitative methods. Quantitative research methods deal with the

measurement of concepts with scales that either directly or indirectly provide numeric values (Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin, 2010). These numeric values are then used for statistical computation and hypothesis testing. Further, through hypothesis testing, quantitative research methods determine the generalisability of the data from the sample to the population. This type of research generates statistical data through the use of fairly large scale survey research collected through questionnaires or structured interviews.

Qualitative research, on the other hand, involves the interpretation of phenomena without depending on numerical measurements or statistical methods. It is mainly concerned with observing, listening and interpreting phenomena (Zikmund *et al*., 2010). The main data collection method is through in-depth interviews, observations or focus groups. Whilst qualitative researchers review transcripts, interview recordings, notes of focus groups or participant research, those who favour quantitative methods rely on statistical techniques aided by software packages.

However, both methods have their limitations. For qualitative research, the sample selected is quite small and usually selected using purposive sampling procedures rather than probability sampling procedures. This makes it difficult to generalise the sample of the study to the population. Further, the findings and conclusions are likely to be influenced by the skills, experience and personal biases of the researcher. The main weakness of quantitative research methods is that the outcomes of the study are limited to the objectives and hypothesis of the study due to the closed type of questions in the research instruments.

From the above review of the two approaches, quantitative approach was found to be more appropriate for this study for the following reasons:

i. Collecting data using quantitative methods is not only relatively less time and cost consuming as data is collected at one point in time, but also enable the researcher to study a large number of respondents within a short period of time. In this study, the survey was conducted among academic and administrative employees from six Kenyan universities which are geographically scattered.
ii. Standardised information is gathered through the use of the same instruments and questions for all the participants. The instruments are deemed to be

accurate through their piloting and revision (Cohen *et al*., 2005).

iii. Data which is collected using quantitative methods, for example questionnaires, if explained in detail, are generally very easy to replicate and also have a high reliability.

iv. Quantitative methods enabled the researcher to test relationships between the dependent and independent variables using statistical techniques.

6.3 Data collection methods

As mentioned earlier, the preferred method for data collection in this study was self-administered questionnaires. A review of the literature revealed that the most suitable method for this study was self-report measures using self-administered questionnaires. The questionnaire method was selected because it is a relatively unobtrusive and inexpensive method for data collection (Zikmund *et al*., 2010; Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2002). Since the population of the study was large and geographically scattered, it was not possible, in terms of time and cost, to have face-to-face encounters (Babbie, 1995). In addition, telephone costs were prohibitive, which ruled out the possibility of carrying out telephone interviews. Postal survey was also ruled out because postal services in Kenya are unreliable and would, therefore, have affected the response rates.

The main advantages of using questionnaires were as follows: they contained standard questions which were administered to a large number of respondents in different parts of Kenya within a short time and at minimal cost; previously developed instruments like the Meyer and Allen's commitment scales were used in order to ensure the reliability of the concepts being investigated (De Vaus, 2002). Through questionnaires, one does not encounter the difficulties arising from interviewer/interviewee interaction (Oppenheim, 1992); respondents are assured of anonymity and confidentiality; they are able to complete them when it is convenient and in their own time (De Vaus, 2002); and finally, data collected using questionnaires are suitable for analysis using statistical packages.

However, their main disadvantage was their inability to motivate the respondents to answer questions or return the completed questionnaires to the researcher, leading to

low response rates (Bryman and Bell, 2003). This necessitated several reminders being sent to some of the respondents. Consequently, the response rate from private universities was 57.7 per cent and 62.6 per cent from public universities. In addition, 15 interviews were carried out among academics and administrative employees, as a follow up to the questionnaires. The information collected from the interviews was used, where relevant, to support some of the findings from the quantitative analysis.

6.4. Sampling procedures

Ghauri and Grønhaug (2002) outlined the procedure for drawing a sample as consisting of the following steps: defining the population, identifying the sampling frame, selecting a sampling procedure, determining the sample size, selecting the sample units and collecting data from the sampled units.

6.4.1. The population of the study

The geographical location of this research study was Kenya. The choice of Kenya as a study location has been motivated by the challenges that public universities have been facing over the last two decades as a result of rapid expansion amid reduced government budgetary allocation. The target population for this study were academic and administrative employees from all the universities in Kenya. Academic and administrative employees were selected to ensure that the views on organisational commitment and job satisfaction were not lopsided. Subordinate employees (i.e. Grade I – IV) were excluded from the administrative staff sample because they are mainly made up of unskilled and semi-skilled staff with very low education levels. Part-time employees were also excluded from the samples because they may not have a basis to form any long-lasting attachment with the concerned universities.

6.4.2. Sample frame

The target population of this study consisted of all academic and administrative employees from all the seven public universities and twenty three private universities in Kenya. The first of the two-stage selection of the sample involved determining the universities which would participate in the study. Since it was not possible in terms of time and cost to survey all the universities, I used purposive sampling procedure to select six universities. The following three factors were used as the basis for selection

of the universities, namely; geographical location, age and size. The age and sizes of the universities were important factors because some of the private universities had been in existence for less than five years, had less than 500 students and depended mainly on part-time lecturers. The three private universities that were selected were established more than fifteen years ago and have a larger number of full-time employees as compared to the other universities. These universities are also based in different geographical locations. The selected universities are: First, The University of East Africa, Baraton situated in Rift Valley province, about 300 kilometres west of Nairobi and founded by the Seventh Day Adventist church. Second, the Catholic University of East Africa based within the capital city, Nairobi. Finally, Daystar University situated in Athi River District, which is about 40 kilometres East of Nairobi. Initial attempts to secure access to the oldest, secular university (i.e. United States International University) failed because the university had suspended the collection of data within the institution from external scholars due to concerns about unethical behaviour from past researchers.

The three public universities which were selected are: First, University of Nairobi which is Kenya's pioneer university.; second, Moi University which was established in 1984 to become Kenya's second university and is situated in Rift Valley province, about 270 kilometres west of Nairobi; and third, Egerton University which is situated in Rift Valley province, about 180 kilometres west of Nairobi (see location of these universities in Appendix B).

Prior to embarking on the research, the researcher wrote to the Vice Chancellors of the concerned universities requesting permission to collect data from their institutions. As per government requirement, upon arrival in Kenya, the researcher had to get a research permit from the Ministry of Science and Technology (see Appendix C). The research permit was then presented to the Deputy Vice Chancellors (Academic Affairs) of the concerned universities for permission to carry out research. The written permission was important because it enabled the researcher to have access to the list of all the employees from each university.

6.4.3 Sampling procedures and determination of the sample size

Sampling from the population is an important process in research because it can be quite impracticable to survey the entire population of university employees in Kenya (Saunders *et al*., 2007). Because of budgetary and time constraints, a sample of academic and administrative employees were selected from only six universities out of the existing thirty universities. Stratified random sampling was used in the selection of respondents in order to get adequate representations of groups that were relevant for the study. The groups of interest were gender, management positions, academic ranking and teaching disciplines. Within each stratum, simple random sampling method was used where each case was assigned a unique number and using a table of random numbers, the respondents were selected. This was considered the best method for reducing sampling bias and achieving a high level of representation (Saunders *et al*, 2007; Sekaran, 1992).

Prior to the identification of the required samples of the study, I contacted the Registrar in charge of Administration of each of the universities in order to get the total number of full-time employees in the specified categories. There were a total of 5,893 employees from the three public universities and 516 from the three private universities.

The sample size for this study was obtained using a formula developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). In order to simplify the process of sample size determination for researchers, Krejcie and Morgan created a table based on the formula which shows the population of a study and the expected sample size thus ensuring that the researcher obtained a representative sample for the study. According to the writers, "as the population increases the sample size increases at a diminishing rate and remains relatively constant at slightly more than 380 cases" (p.607). The formula and table are shown below:

$$S = \frac{X^2 NP(1-P)}{d^2(N-1) + X^2 P(1-P)}$$

where:

s = the required sample size

X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (i.e. 3.841)

N = the population size

P = the population proportion (assumed to be 0.50 since this would provide the maximum sample size)

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (in this study, it is set at 5%).

Table 6.1: Table for determining sample size from a given population

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	**10**	150	**108**	460	**210**	2200	**327**
15	**14**	160	**113**	480	**214**	2400	**331**
20	**19**	170	**118**	500	**217**	2600	**335**
25	**24**	180	**123**	550	**226**	2800	**338**
30	**28**	190	**127**	600	**234**	3000	**341**
35	**32**	200	**132**	650	**242**	3500	**346**
40	**36**	210	**136**	700	**248**	4000	**351**
45	**40**	220	**140**	750	**254**	4500	**354**
50	**44**	230	**144**	800	**260**	5000	**357**
55	**48**	240	**148**	850	**265**	6000	**361**
60	**52**	250	**152**	900	**269**	7000	**364**
65	**56**	260	**155**	950	**274**	8000	**367**
70	**59**	270	**159**	1000	**278**	9000	**368**
75	**63**	280	**162**	1100	**285**	10000	**370**
80	**66**	290	**165**	1200	**291**	15000	**375**
85	**70**	300	**169**	1300	**297**	20000	**377**
90	**73**	320	**175**	1400	**302**	30000	**379**
95	**76**	340	**181**	1500	**306**	40000	**380**
100	**80**	360	**186**	1600	**310**	50000	**381**
110	**86**	380	**191**	1700	**313**	75000	**382**
120	**92**	400	**196**	1800	**317**	100000	**384**
130	**97**	420	**201**	1900	**320**		
140	**103**	440	**205**	2000	**322**		

Notes: N = Population size; S = Sample size

Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970, p.608)

With approval from the Deputy Vice Chancellors in charge of Administration of each of the universities in the study, I was able to identify the respondents with the help of the Human resource managers of each university. The Table 6.2 below shows the target populations and sample sizes from each university and occupational group.

Table 6.2: Sampling matrix for academic and administrative staff in public and private universities in Kenya

		Academic staff		Administrative staff	
		Target population	**Sample**	**Target population**	**Sample**
1	**University of Nairobi**	1,411	200 (302)	1647	200 (310)
2	**Egerton University**	663	200 (248)	779	200 (260)
3	**Moi University**	650	200 (242)	743	200 (254)
4	**Catholic University**	105	80	93	75
5	**Daystar University**	95	76	80	66
6	**Baraton University**	90	73	53	46
	Total	**3004**	**829**	**3405**	**787**

Notes: Numbers in parentheses were the actual samples size. However, due to high printing costs, the sample size for public universities was pegged at 200 respondents for each occupational group.

6.5. Development of questionnaire items

Prior to designing the questionnaire, a review of the relevant literature was carried out to identify the key constructs of the study variables. The questionnaire consisted of the dependent and independent variables of the study. The dependent variables were organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. The independent variables were demographic characteristics, job and role-related factors, professional commitment and human resource management practices (See questionnaire and introductory letter in Appendix D).

The questionnaire consisted of six sections, namely;
Section One: asked respondents to provide personal information.

Section Two: designed to measure the level of an individual's commitment to their universities and jobs.

Section Three: measured the extent to which employees were satisfied with their jobs.

Section Four: consisted of a series of items measuring job and role-related factors which may affect employees' commitment and satisfaction with their jobs. These are

job autonomy, feedback, task variety, co-worker and supervisory support, role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload.

Section Five: consisted of a series of statements measuring different human resource management practices which may affect employees' commitment to their universities. These are: job security, promotional opportunities, training and development, pay satisfaction, distributive justice, performance appraisal, participation in decision making and career development.

Section Six: consisted of items measuring employees' intention to leave their universities. Detailed report on the development of the questionnaire items are presented in Appendix E.

6.6 Fieldwork

The fieldwork began with the pilot study and correction of the questionnaire; followed by the administration and collection of the questionnaires for the study. This process is discussed below.

6.6.1. Pilot study

Following the development of the questionnaire, a pilot study was carried out to ensure that the items in the questionnaire were stated clearly, had the same meaning to all the respondents, and also to give the researcher an idea of approximately how long it would take to complete the questionnaire. A total of 38 questionnaires were administered to academic and administrative staff in one private university and one public university. These institutions were not included in the main study to avoid contamination of the respondents (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). Thirty four (34) questionnaires were returned, out of which 30 were usable.

The respondents were informed that the questionnaire was a pilot for a larger study. A short questionnaire was attached at the end in which they were asked to indicate the length of time it took to complete the questionnaire; highlight questions that they found to be ambiguous or which they were uncomfortable with and to make any other

comments that would improve the questionnaire. The respondents indicated that it took them between 15 and 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Questions that were indicated as ambiguous or uncomfortable were rephrased. However, the main complaint was confusion arising from negatively worded (reversed) items. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001) negatively worded items and terms should be avoided in questionnaires because of their tendency to confuse respondents. Two variables, namely task identity and level of formalization in the university, were dropped from further investigation because they failed the reliability test. Following the revision, items in the questionnaire, excluding personal details, reduced from 116 items to 106 items.

The measurement scales in the pilot study were also tested for internal consistency using the Cronbach alpha coefficient. The reliability alpha coefficients for multidimensional commitment items were as follows: Affective commitment, $\alpha = 0.78$, Continuance commitment, $\alpha = 0.69$ while Normative commitment had the lowest, $\alpha = 0.54$. As a result of the low reliability, the revised normative commitment scale by Meyer *et al*. (1993) was used in the main study. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for normative commitment in the main study increased to, $\alpha = 0.765$.

6.6.2 Questionnaire administration

Having decided on the appropriate sample size and identified the respondents, I distributed the corrected questionnaires through a 'drop and pick' method. A letter of introduction accompanied the questionnaires explaining the purpose of the study and also assuring the respondents of confidentiality and anonymity. To ensure anonymity, each respondent was given a self-addressed envelope to enclose the completed questionnaire and drop in designated areas. With the support of the Deputy Vice Chancellors in charge of Administration of the participating universities, I was able to enlist the help of the Human Resource managers and line managers in distributing and collecting the questionnaires. This was the best way of ensuring higher completion rates than the mail surveys (Babbie, 1995). The response rates are shown below:

Table 6.3: Response rate for academic and administrative staff

University	Academic staff			Non-academic staff			Total no. of respondents
	N	%	N^1	N	%	N^1	
University of Nairobi	72	36	**68**	57	28.5	**51**	**119**
Egerton University	189	94.5	**184**	180	90.0	**175**	**359**
Moi University	97	48.5	**94**	156	78.0	**151**	**245**
Catholic University	23	28.8	**18**	59	78.7	**52**	**70**
Daystar University	50	65.8	**46**	48	72.7	**42**	**88**
Baraton University	39	53.4	**36**	21	47.7	**15**	**51**
Total	470	56.7	**446**	521	66.4	**486**	**932**

Notes: N = Unscreened responses; N^1 = Final responses without missing data

The response rate from academic employees was 56.7 per cent and 66.4 per cent for administrative employees. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001) a response rate of 50 per cent is adequate for analysis and reporting while 60 per cent is good. The response rate in this study was improved by sending reminders to the respondents. It is worth noting that the data collection process was prolonged as a result of three months closure of the public universities (i.e. December, 2006 to January, 2007) following industrial action by academics who were agitating for improved pay. Prior to the closure of the universities, the researcher collected data from non-teaching employees (i.e. between October and November, 2006) as the academic staff in all public universities had begun their strike. Data from academics were collected in February and March, 2007 when the strike was called off and the universities reopened.

6.6.3 Interview schedule

The second phase of the data collection involved face-to-face interviews among some academic and administrative staff. The purpose of these interviews was to clarify issues from the questionnaires and quotations from these interviews are used to support the quantitative data. These interviews were carried out among 15 academic and administrative employees (i.e. 6 academics, 4 senior management, 2 technicians and 3 middle management employees). The choice of respondents from different occupational groups and job cadres ensured that the responses were not lopsided. The interviewees were selected using purposive sampling.

Each of the interviews was conducted in the workplace and lasted between 45 minutes and one hour. Prior to the commencement of the interviews, the interviewer sought permission from each participant to record the interviews. Interviewees' were assured of anonymity and confidentiality during the interviews and in the reporting of the interviews. The interview items were mainly derived from the questionnaires and are presented in Appendix F. The interviews were transcribed and where relevant, quotations from the interview transcripts were used to support the results from the statistical analysis in Chapter Nine.

6.7 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

Validity and reliability in research are issues that the researcher should address in the design of the study and analysis of the results so that the research can withstand a quality test (Patton, 2002). Although the measurements used in this study have been found to be reliable in American and other western contexts, they have not been tested on a Kenyan context.

6.7.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the ability of a measurement instrument to produce the same answer in the same circumstances, time after time (Johnson and Harris, 2002; De Vaus, 2002). This means that if people answered a question the same way on repeated occasions, then the instrument can be said to be reliable. There are three different

techniques for assessing reliability in data. These are test-retest, split-half and internal consistency. *Test-retest* method of assessing reliability of data was not found to be suitable for this study because it involves administering the same instrument twice to the same group of subjects, with a time lapse between the first and second test. This technique is more suitable for longitudinal studies and not for cross-sectional studies. Another disadvantage with this process is that respondents may be sensitised by the first testing or may remember their responses during the second testing thus resulting in artificially high coefficients. The *split-half* reliability technique involves splitting items in a scale into two halves and correlating the results of each half with each other. If the correlations are high, then both parts of the scale are deemed to be measuring the same construct (Johnson and Harris, 2002). The disadvantage with this method is that when the items in the scale are an odd number, for example, 13 or 15 items, one half will have more items than the other half.

In this study, internal consistency method was used. The rationale for internal consistency is that the individual items should all be measuring the same constructs and thus correlates positively to one another (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998). The most widely used measure for determining internal consistency is the Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The test of reliability was calculated using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science).

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges between 0 and 1 (De Vaus, 2002). Higher alpha coefficient values means that scales are more reliable. As a rule of thumb, acceptable alpha should be at least 0.70 or above (Hair *et al.,* 1998; De Vaus, 2002; Maizura, Masilamani and Aris, 2009). However, the value of cronbach alpha may vary for different studies, for instance, in exploratory research a Cronbach alpha value of 0.60 is acceptable (Hair *et al*., 1998; Maizura *et al*., 2009). Other studies have recommended that reliability coefficient of 0.50 or 0.60 was sufficient for exploratory studies (Nunnally, 1967; Davis and Cosenza, 1988). Further, De Vaus (2002) suggests that the relationship between one item and the rest of the items in the scale should be at least 0.30. Therefore, items with coefficients below 0.30 are considered to be unreliable and should be deleted resulting in improved alpha.

In this study, professional commitment had the lowest alpha coefficient ($\alpha = 0.482$).

One item with a low item-total correlation (0.110), namely, ***"I will have many career options if I decide to change professions now"*** was dropped, resulting in alpha increasing to 0.621.

Table 6.4 below shows the reliability coefficient alpha of all the constructs in this study ranging from $\alpha = 0.577$ (role conflict) to $\alpha = 0.912$ (turnover intentions) which is quite acceptable.

Table 6.4: Summary of Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for study variables

No.	Variables	No. of items per variable	Reliability Coefficient Alpha	Alpha after item(s) in bold deleted
1	Overall organisational commitment	18	0.874	N/A
2	Affective commitment	(6)	0.876	N/A
3(a)	Continuance commitment (low alternatives)	(3)	0.716	N/A
3(b)	Continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice)	(3)	0.727	N/A
4	Normative commitment	(6)	0.765	N/A
5	Professional commitment	4	0.482	0.621
6	Overall job satisfaction	15	0.876	N/A
7	Extrinsic job satisfaction	(8)	0.746	N/A
8	Intrinsic job satisfaction	(7)	0.818	N/A
	Turnover intentions	3	0.912	N/A
10	Role overload	4	0.658	N/A
11	Job autonomy	5	0.742	N/A
12	Feedback	3	0.853	N/A
13	Task variety	2	0.751	N/A
14	Role conflict	3	0.577	N/A
15	Role ambiguity	5	0.697	N/A
16	Co-worker support	3	0.876	N/A
17	Supervisory support	4	0.900	N/A
18	Job security	5	0.794	N/A
19	Promotional opportunities	4	0.672	N/A
20	Training opportunities	5	0.749	N/A
21	Pay satisfaction	5	0.765	N/A
22	Distributive justice	6	0.856	N/A
23	Performance appraisal	3	0.844	N/A
24	Participation in decision making	5	0.806	N/A
25	Career development	3	0.779	N/A

Notes: Numbers in brackets make up overall organisational commitment and job satisfaction

6.7.2. Validity

Validity is the extent to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the concept of interest (Hair *et al*., 1998). Face and content validity were used in this study. Content validity is a measure of the degree to which data collected using a particular instrument represents the content of the concept being measured (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). To ensure content validity, I carried out a thorough review of the literature in order to identify the items required to measure the concepts, for example, job characteristics, HRM practices among others. The questionnaire was then given to some PhD students who read and critiqued it in order to give it face validity, that is, whether the questionnaire made sense (Saunders *et al*., 2007). The questionnaire was then critiqued by experts before and during the pilot study, further ensuring its validity.

6.8 Data Analysis

The data from the questionnaires were screened and entered in readiness for analysis using SPSS software. This was analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics were computed to obtain a general understanding of the universities and respondents' characteristics such as age, tenure, gender and education among others. Inferential statistics were computed in the second stage of the analysis. The purpose here was to test a number of hypothesised relationships so as to make generalisations of the findings from the sample to a larger population. Different statistical techniques were used to achieve the objectives of the study as follows:

i. To determine the applicability of Meyer and Allen's (1991) multidimensional conceptualisation of organisational commitment to a Kenyan context – ***Exploratory factor analysis and Pearson correlation coefficient***
ii. To determine whether there were any sector (i.e. public and private) and occupational group (i.e. academic and administrative) differences in the level of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions – ***Independent samples t-test***
iii. To examine the extent to which demographic characteristics, professional commitment, job and role-related factors, and HRM practices influenced

organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among employees in public and private universities – ***Hierarchical regression analysis, Stepwise regression analysis and Pearson correlation coefficient***

iv. To establish the extent to which organisational commitment and job satisfaction influenced intentions to turnover among administrative and academic employees - ***Stepwise regression analysis and Pearson correlation coefficient***

v. To identify the factors that contributed to the organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions of employees in private and public universities in Kenya - ***Stepwise regression analysis***

The variables in this study fall within three measurement scales: nominal, ordinal and interval. The dependent variables (namely, organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions) and the independent variables (namely, job characteristics, role stressors and HRM practices) were all interval scales. On the other hand, gender, marital status, sector and occupational groups were all nominal scales. Finally, age, tenure and education were ordinal scales.

6.8.1 Tests of hypotheses and statistical tools

Below are the study's hypotheses and the statistical tools which were used in the data analysis.

HYPOTHESES	TYPE OF ANALYSIS
Hypothesis One H1a: The three-component model of organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment) will be applicable to a Kenyan context H1b: Continuance commitment in the Kenyan context will consist of two dimensions, namely: 'high personal sacrifice' and 'low perceived alternatives'.	- Exploratory factor analysis -Pearson's correlation coefficient (Chapter Seven)
Hypothesis Two H2a: Employees involved in moonlighting activities will have lower levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction and higher levels of intentions to turnover. H2b: Demographic characteristics (i.e. age, gender, marital status, tenure, education) will be significantly related to organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.	-Pearson's correlation coefficient -Independent samples t-test (Chapter Seven) -Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression analysis (Chapter Eight)
Hypothesis Three: H3a: Role stressors (i.e. role overload, role ambiguity and role conflict) will be significant negative predictors of organisational commitment (i.e. affective, normative and continuance commitment) and job satisfaction (i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction) H3b: Role stressors (i.e. role overload, role ambiguity and role conflict) will be significant positive predictors of intentions to turnover H3c: Employees from public universities will have significantly higher levels of role stress than employee in private universities H3d: Role stress will be significantly higher among administrative employees than academic employees	-Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression analysis (Chapter Eight)) -Pearson's correlation coefficient (Appendix G) -Independent samples t-test (Chapter Seven)
Hypothesis Four H4a: Job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, feedback, task variety, co-worker and supervisory support) will be significant positive predictors of organisational commitment (i.e. affective, normative and continuance commitment) and job satisfaction (i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction). H4b: Job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, feedback, task variety, co-worker and supervisory support) will be significant negative predictors of intentions to turnover. H4c: Job characteristics will minimise the negative influence of role stressors on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to turnover. H4d: Satisfaction with job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, feedback, task variety, co-worker and supervisory support) will be significantly higher in private universities than in public universities. H4e: Academic employees will be more satisfied with their job characteristics than administrative employees.	-Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression analysis (Chapter Eight) -Pearson's correlation coefficient (Appendix G) -Independent samples t-test (Chapter Seven)
HYPOTHESES	**TYPE OF ANALYSIS**
Hypothesis Five: H5a: Professional commitment will be a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment), job satisfaction (i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction) and turnover intentions. H5b: Academics will have higher levels of professional commitment than administrative employees	-Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression analysis (Chapter Eight) -Independent samples t-test (Chapter Seven)

Hypothesis Six H6a: Individual HRM practices (i.e. job security, promotional opportunities, training and development, pay, distributive justice, performance appraisal, participation in decision making and career development) will be significant positive predictors of organisational commitment (i.e. affective, normative and continuance commitment) and job satisfaction (i.e. extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction). H6b: Individual HRM practices (i.e. job security, promotional opportunities, training and development, pay, distributive justice, performance appraisal, participation in decision making and career development) will be significant negative predictors of intentions to turnover. H6c: Satisfaction with HRM practices will be significantly higher among employees from private universities than employees from public universities. H6d: Academics will be more satisfied with their universities HRM practices than administrative employees.	-Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression analysis (Chapter Eight) -Pearson's correlation Coefficient (Appendix H) -Independent samples t-test (Chapter Seven)
Hypothesis Seven H7a: Employees from private universities will have significantly higher levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and are less likely to intend to turnover than employees from public universities. H7b: Academics will have higher levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and are more likely to turnover than administrative employees.	-Independent samples t-test (Chapter Seven)
Hypothesis Eight H8a: Demographic characteristics, role stressors, professional commitment, job characteristics and HRM practices are significant stronger predictors of (a) affective commitment (b) continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice and low perceived alternatives) (c) normative commitment, and (d) overall organisational commitment among academic employees than administrative employees in public and private universities. H8b: Demographic characteristics, role stressors, professional commitment, job characteristics and HRM practices are significant stronger predictors of (a) extrinsic job satisfaction and (b) intrinsic job satisfaction among academic employees than administrative employees in public and private universities. H8c: Demographic characteristics, role stressors, professional commitment, job characteristics and HRM practices will be significant stronger predictors of turnover intentions among academic employees than administrative employees in public and private universities.	-Hierarchical and Stepwise Regression analysis (Chapter Eight)
Hypothesis Nine Organisational commitment and job satisfaction will be significant stronger negative predictors of turnover intentions among academic employees than administrative employees.	Stepwise Regression analysis (Chapter Eight)

6.9 Ethical Issues in research

Ethics in research concerns the appropriateness of the researcher's behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of their work or are affected by it (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999; Saunders *et al*., 2007). The researcher assured the participants of confidentiality and anonymity through a covering letter accompanying the questionnaires. There was no usage of the participants' names on the questionnaires, instead special coding was used on the questionnaire for ease of making a follow up.

The researcher also clearly explained the purpose of the research in the introductory letter. Failure to do so might have resulted in the participants revealing information they would otherwise not have revealed had they known the status of the confidant as a researcher (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). During the data analysis stage, the researcher had to maintain objectivity to ensure that there is no misinterpretation of the data that had been collected. Lack of objectivity at this stage was likely to distort the conclusions and any course of action that may arises from the study (Saunders *et al*., 2007).

6.10 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the research methods of this study. The research design of the study is cross-sectional which enabled the researcher to collect data at a single point in time. This is opposed to longitudinal research design which takes a longer period of time. Questionnaire method was used to collect the research data. This was more convenient to get more data from a geographically scattered sample. In addition, interviews were carried out with some members of the university management and a selected number of academic and administrative employees to clarify issues arising from the questionnaires. Also discussed were the sampling procedures, response rates, questionnaire development, reliability and validity, methods of statistical analysis and issues related to ethical considerations. The next chapter presents the data analysis.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Descriptive statistics and factor analysis of organisational commitment

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of preliminary data analysis as follows; firstly, it describes the demographic characteristics of the sampled respondents from six universities (three public and three private) in Kenya. Such a description is important in providing a clear understanding of the respondents included in the study. Secondly, it discusses the results of factor analysis of the organisational commitment items. Thirdly, it discusses the extent to which the independent variables differed statistically among the respondents based on university sector (i.e. public and private universities) and occupational groups (i.e. academic and administrative staff). These analyses were carried out using means, frequencies and percentages; exploratory factor analysis; Pearson product-moment correlation and Independent samples t-test. These analyses will provide a basis for the discussion of the statistical analysis in Chapter Eight using multiple regression analysis.

7.2 Profiles of the respondents

This section presents the characteristics of the respondents as follows: gender, age, marital status, tenure, level of education, occupational groups (i.e. academic and administrative) and university sector (i.e. public and private). These are shown in Table 7.1 below.

Table 7.1: Summary of demographic characteristics of the respondents

Demographic variables	Frequency	Percent (%)
Occupational groups		
Academic	446	47.9
Administrative	486	52.1
University sector		
Public	723	77.6
Private	209	22.4
Age		
Below 30	83	8.9
30-39	308	33.0
40-49	364	39.1
50 and above	177	19.0
Gender		
Male	607	65.1
Female	325	34.9
Marital status		
Unmarried	171	18.3
Married	761	81.7
Job tenure		
4 years and less	191	20.5
5 - 10	224	24.0
11 - 15	266	28.5
16 and above	251	26.9
Position tenure		
Below 1 year	67	7.2
1 - 4	421	45.2
5 - 10	237	25.4
11 and above	207	22.2
Education		
Certificate	65	7.0
Diploma	153	16.4
Bachelor	166	17.8
Masters	295	31.7
PhD (on-going)	86	9.2
PhD	167	17.9
Academic rank		
Assistant lecturer	70	15.7
Lecturer	289	64.8
Senior lecturer	55	12.3
Professor	32	7.2
Management level		
Senior management	154	31.7
Middle management	241	49.6
Technicians	91	18.7

The statistics show that 77.6% of the respondents were from public universities while 22.4% were from private universities. Out of 932 respondents, 47.9% were academics while 52.1% were administrative employees. Among the academic employees, only

7.2% of the respondents were professors while 64.8% were lecturers. The limited number of professors in Kenyan universities may be as a result of high 'brain drain' that was experienced in the 1980s and 1990s. Poor terms and conditions of service in the public universities and an oppressive government, led to most of the academics to seek greener pastures abroad or in the private sector. There were significant gender differences in the levels of education with most of the male respondents (i.e. between 62% - 77%) having an undergraduate degree and above as compared to about 20% - 37% of the female respondents with the same level of education. Among the administrative employees, the data shows that there were more female respondents in middle management than in senior management and technical positions ($\chi 2 = 35.824$, df = 2, $p < 0.05$). This suggests that more women were found in job groups that did not require high academic skills (e.g. housekeeping, clerical, secretarial). This is consistent with studies by Onsongo (2003, 2004) which found significant gender disparities in managerial and academic positions in higher education institutions in Kenya.

7.2.1 Influence of moonlighting on organisational commitment and job satisfaction

Studies have shown that salaries are a very important ingredient in ensuring employees commitment to the organization (Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Singh *et al*., 2004). However, inadequate and uncompetitive salaries in most African universities has prompted many academics to give minimal time to university work and seek one or more income-generating activities to supplement their academic salaries (Blair and Jordan, 1995; Abagi, 1998; Tetty, 2006). The consequence for university teaching and administration is a loss of quality and loyalty. In order to establish the extent to which this was a challenge in Kenyan universities, employees were asked to indicate whether they were involved in any income generating or "moonlighting" activities. Thus, it is proposed that:

Hypothesis 2a: Employees involved in moonlighting activities will have lower levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction and higher levels of intentions to turnover

The results are shown in Table 7.2 below.

Table 7.2: Respondents engaged in income generating activities

	Yes	Percent (%)	No	Percent (%)	Total
Total respondents	518	**55.6**	414	**44.4**	**932**
Academic employees	333	**74.7**	113	**25.3**	**446**
Administrative employees	185	**38.1**	301	**61.9**	**486**
Public universities	449	**62.1**	274	**37.9**	**723**
Private universities	69	**33.0**	140	**67.0**	**209**

The analysis indicates that 55.6% of the total number of respondents engaged in income generating activities while 44.4% did not engage in these activities. 62.1% of these respondents were from public universities while only 33% were from private universities. Poor salaries in public universities have meant that employees have had to seek alternative means of supplementing their income. Further, 74.7% of the academic staff respondents moonlighted as compared to 38.1% of the administrative staff respondents. Unlike academic employees who have flexible working hours, most administrative employees have fixed working hours (i.e. 8.00am to 5.00pm) thus constraining their ability to engage in income generating activities.

Independent samples t-test was carried out to determine the impact of moonlighting activities on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Table 7.3: Independent samples t-test exploring the impact of moonlighting activities on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions

	Involvement in IGAs			
Occupational groups	**Yes**	**No**	**df**	**t**
Academic employees	**N = 333**	**N = 113**		
Organisational commitment	54.93 (12.17)	57.92 (11.06)	444	-2.309*
Job satisfaction	45.62 (9.32)	48.28 (10.25)	444	-2.562**
Turnover intentions	7.88 (3.39)	7.80 (3.48)	444	0.217
Administrative employees	**N = 185**	**N = 301**		
Organisational commitment	58.23 (11.87)	57.98 (11.62)	484	0.231
Job satisfaction	47.01 (9.47)	46.41 (9.75)	484	0.662
Turnover intentions	7.82 (3.28)	7.79 (3.32)	484	0.083

**** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$**

The results in Table 7.3 show that moonlighting activities did not have a significant impact on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among administrative employees. However, the results show that academics who were

involved in moonlighting activities were less committed to their universities (M = 54.93) as compared to academics who were not involved in these activities (M = 57.92, $p < 0.05$). Similarly, academics who were not involved in moonlighting activities were more satisfied with their jobs (M = 48.28) than academics who were involved in these activities (M = 45.62, $p < 0.01$). It is therefore imperative for universities to implement competitive salaries and therefore enhance employee retention, commitment and job satisfaction.

7.3 Factor analysis of organisational commitment items

The main objective of this study was to find out whether Meyer and Allen's multidimensional organisational commitment scale was applicable to a Kenyan setting. In this regard, factor analysis was the most appropriate technique to find out whether organisational commitment in this study had similar psychometric properties to other previous studies in a western setting (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Hackett *et al*., 1994; Jaros, 2007). In addition, factor analysis was carried out on continuance commitment scales to find out whether it was a two-dimensional construct consisting of high personal sacrifice and low perceived alternatives.

In a review of research findings pertaining to the three-component model, Allen and Meyer (1996) noted that most studies were conducted in North America. Since the publication of Allen and Meyer's (1996) review, several studies have been carried out in other cultural contexts. These include western cultures outside North America and Asian countries, such as, China, Korea and Turkey among others. However, no studies have been carried out in a Kenyan context using Meyer and Allen's conceptualisation of organisational commitment. The only studies that the researcher found on organisational commitment in a Kenyan context used the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) by Porter and Colleagues which depicts only one aspect of organisational commitment—affective/attitudinal commitment (Mulinge, 2001; Walumbwa *et al*., 2005). Based on the literature, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1a: The three-component model of organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment) will be applicable to a Kenyan context

Hypothesis 1b: Continuance commitment in the Kenyan context will consist of two dimensions,

namely: 'high personal sacrifice' and 'low perceived alternatives'.

7.3.1 Dimensionality of organisational commitment

The procedure that was used to establish the dimensionality of organisational commitment was factor analysis using principal component analysis (PCA). Factor analysis and PCA are related techniques which are used to analyse groups of related variables and reducing them into a small number of factors or components. This procedure was used to find out whether three factors could be extracted from the eighteen items of organisational commitment to represent affective, normative and continuance commitment. Three main steps were followed in conducting factor analysis namely; assessment of the suitability of the data; factor extraction, and factor rotation and interpretation (Pallant, 2006).

Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed (Hair *et al*., 1998; Pallant, 2006). The sample size of this study was above the recommended limit for factor analysis (Hair *et al*., 1998). An inspection of the correlation matrix of the 18 organisational commitment items revealed that most of the correlation coefficients (r) were greater than 0.30 ($p < 0.05$). The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy was 0.893, which was above the recommended value (Hair *et al*., 1998; Pallant, 2006). In addition, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance ($p < 0.05$) which indicated the factorability of the correlation matrix. The results are shown in Table 7.4 below:

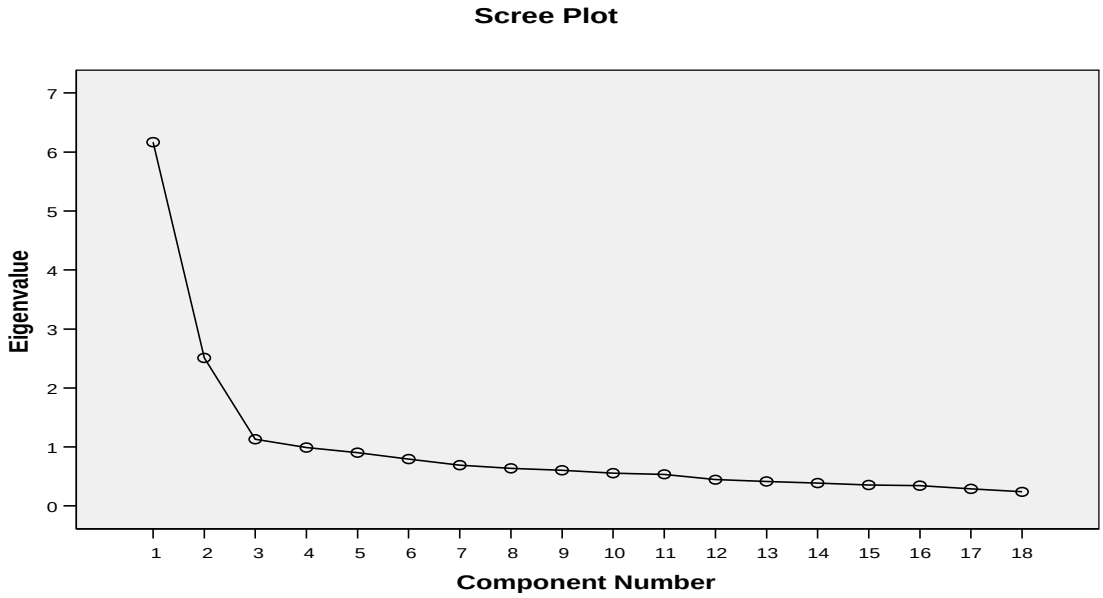
Table 7.4: Eigenvalues of organisational commitment items

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings	
	Total	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**	**Total**	**Cumulative %**
1	**6.166**	**34.26**	**34.26**	**6.166**	**34.26**
2	**2.509**	**13.94**	**48.20**	**2.509**	**48.20**
3	**1.129**	**6.27**	**54.47**	**1.129**	**54.47**
4	.990	5.50	59.97		
5	.906	5.03	65.00		
6	.794	4.41	69.41		
7	.692	3.84	73.26		
8	.638	3.55	76.80		
9	.605	3.36	80.17		
10	.557	3.09	83.26		
11	.537	2.98	86.24		
12	.444	2.47	88.71		
13	.417	2.32	91.03		
14	.387	2.15	93.18		
15	.356	1.98	95.16		
16	.344	1.91	97.07		
17	.289	1.60	98.67		
18	.239	1.33	100.00		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

The factor analysis shows that organisational commitment had three components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 explaining 34.3%, 13.9% and 6.3% of the variance respectively. These results were confirmed by an inspection of the screeplot which revealed a clear break after the third component, as shown in Figure 7.1 below.

Figure 7.1: Screeplot of organisational commitment items



In this regard, it was decided to retain three factors for further analysis. Varimax rotation was performed to aid in the interpretation of the three extracted factors, as shown in Table 7.5 below.

Table 7.5: Factor analysis of 18 organisational commitment items using Varimax rotation

Item No.	Organisational commitment items	Factor1	Factor2	Factor3
ACS4	I feel a lot of emotional attachment to my university	**.835**		
ACS5	My university has a great deal of personal meaning for me	**.797**		
ACS6	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my university	**.796**		
ACS2	I really enjoy telling people what a wonderful place my university is	**.725**		
ACS3	I always feel as if this university's problems are my own	**.677**		
ACS1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this university	**.622**		
CCS10	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving my job in this university		**.781**	
CCS9	Right now, staying with my university is a matter of necessity		**.730**	
CCS11	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this university would be the scarcity of available alternatives		**.707**	
CCS8	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I wanted to leave my university now		**.678**	
CCS7	It would be very hard for me to leave my university right now, even if I wanted to		**.595**	
CCS12	Leaving this university would require considerable personal sacrifice because another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here		**.541**	**.362**
NCS17	I would feel guilty if I left my university right now			**.783**
NCS13	I would not leave working for my university right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	**.306**		**.665**
NCS16	I owe a great deal of loyalty to my university considering all it has done for me (e.g. training, medical assistance, etc)			**.659**
NCS14	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave working in my university right now			**.658**
NCS18	I believe that this university deserves my loyalty	**.461**		**.474**
NCS15	I do not feel any sense of obligation to remain with my current employer			**.343**
	Reliability Cronbach Alpha	**0.879**	**0.786**	**0.772**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations

Factors that had correlation coefficients of 0.30 and above were retained. Tabachnick and Fidell (1989, p. 640) recommended that "only variables with a loading of .30 and above are interpreted". The organisational commitment items which loaded on each factor were clustered together and sorted in order of the size of their correlations. The interpretation of the three factors was consistent with previous studies on the Meyer and Allen's organisational commitment scales, with Affective commitment items

loading strongly on Factor 1, Continuance commitment items on Factor 2 and Normative commitment items on Factor 3.

The rotated component matrix has shown that some items in Factor 3 (NCS13 and NCS18) cross-loaded with Factor 1 while an item in Factor 2 (CCS6) loaded on Factor 3. **Factor 1** comprised eight items, instead of the original six items which were designed to measure affective commitment. The additional two items were designed to measure normative commitment, namely; NCS13*"I would not leave working for my university right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it"* and NCS18*"I believe that this university deserves my loyalty"*. This overlap is consistent with studies which found that affective and normative commitment scales had an inherent psychological overlap (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Jaros, 2007). They argued that it may not be possible to feel a strong obligation to an organisation without also developing positive emotional feelings for it. However, since the correlation coefficients for these two normative commitment items were lower in Factor 1 than in Factor 3, the items were removed from further analysis. Consequently, six items which were originally designed to measure affective commitment were retained. Factor 1, therefore, corresponds with the dimension of organisational commitment that Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 67) defined as "employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation". The highest loadings on Factor one are items: ACS4, ACS5, ACS6 and ACS2, measuring employees' emotional attachment, sense of belonging and identification.

Factor 2 comprised six items which were originally designed to measure continuance commitment and corresponded to the dimension that Meyer and Allen referred to as the "awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation" (p. 67). These items did not overlap with any of the affective commitment items. However, CCS12 loaded on Factor 3, normative commitment. The main loadings on Factor 2 were CCS10, CCS9 and CCS11, which measure low perceived alternatives.

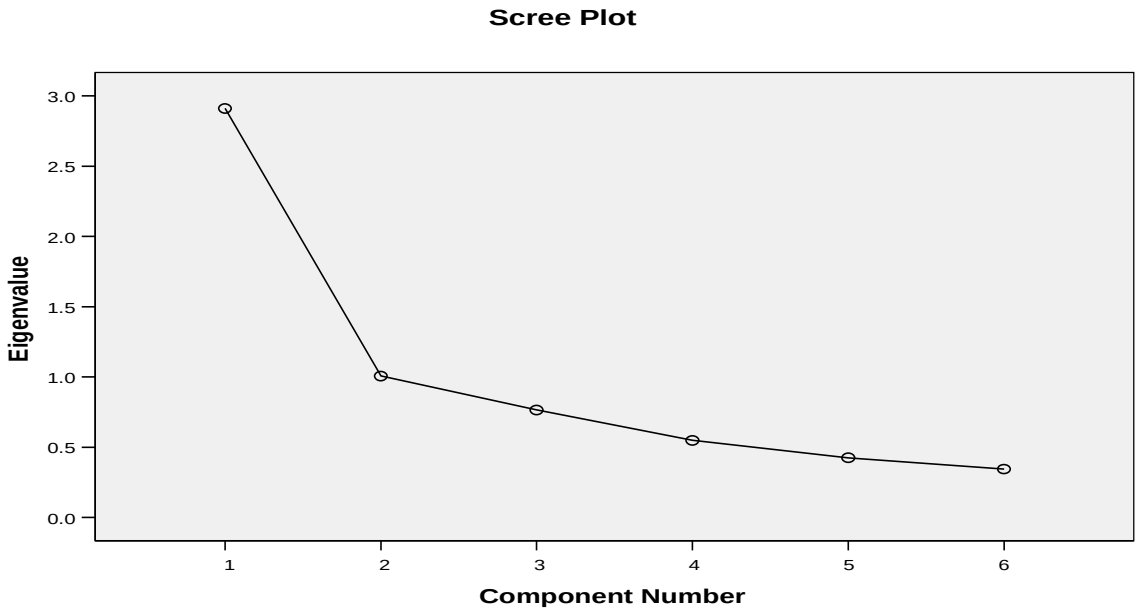
Factor 3 comprised items measuring normative commitment. However, one continuance commitment item (i.e. CCS12) loaded on Factor 3. It is possible that the unmatched "generosity" in terms of the benefits offered by their universities may have resulted in employees feeling obligated to make extra effort towards the success of

their universities. However, since this item had a lower loading on Factor 3 (0.362) than on Factor 2 (0.541), it was excluded from Factor 3. Factor 3, therefore, corresponded with Meyer and Allen's conceptualisation of "a feeling of obligation to continue employment" (pg.67). The main loadings on Factor 3 are NCS17, NCS13, NCS16 and NCS14 which measure loyalty and moral obligation to the university.

7.3.2 Dimensionality of continuance commitment

Continuance commitment was subjected to further factor analysis to find out whether the dimensionality of the scales was consistent with the studies carried out by McGee and Ford (1987). PCA revealed that the six continuance commitment items had 2 eigenvalues greater than 1. The eigenvalues were 2.911 and 1.007, and explained 48.5% and 16.8% of the variance respectively. The total variance explained by these 2 factors was 65.3%. The Screeplot confirmed a clear break between Factors 2 and 3, as shown below.

Figure 7.2: Screeplot of continuance commitment items



The rotated factor loadings are presented in Table 7.6 below.

Table 7.6: Factor analysis of continuance commitment items

Item No.	Continuance commitment items	Factor 1	Factor 2
CCS1	It would be very hard for me to leave my university right now, even if I wanted to	**0.871**	
CCS2	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I wanted to leave my university now	**0.863**	
CCS6	Leaving this university would require considerable personal sacrifice because another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here	**0.499**	**0.406**
CCS5	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this university would be the scarcity of available alternatives		**0.874**
CCS4	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving my job in this university		**0.787**
CCS3	Right now, staying with my university is a matter of necessity		**0.583**
	Reliability Cronbach Alpha	**0.727**	**0.715**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

The rotated component matrix extracted three items for Factor 1 and four items for Factor 2, since CCS6 loaded on Factor 1 and Factor 2. Items that make up **Factor 1** reflect the personal sacrifices that would have to be made should an employee decide to leave the organisation. Consistent with McGee and Ford (1987), Factor 1 was referred to as continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice).

Factor 2 comprises items that reflect the role of available job alternatives in the decision to remain or leave one's job. Similar to McGee and Ford's findings, CCS6 *"Leaving this university would require considerable personal sacrifice because another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here…"* loaded on Factor 2. However, since this item had a higher loading on Factor 1 (0.499) than on Factor 2 (0.409), the item was excluded from Factor 2. Factor 2 was referred to as continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives). Consistent with previous studies (McGee and Ford, 1987; Meyer, Allen and Gellatly (1990); Dunham *et al*., 1994; Hackett *et al*., 1994), continuance commitment was bi-dimensional consisting of 'high personal sacrifice' and 'low perceived alternatives'.

Following the factor analysis, Pearson correlation analysis was performed between the commitment scales to determine the strength and direction of the relationships, as shown in Table 7.7.

Table 7.7: Correlations among affective, continuance and normative commitment

	AC	CC	CC (HPS)	CC (LALT)	NC
Affective commitment - AC	1.000	0.272**	0.416**	0.046ns	0.649**
Continuance commitment - CC	**0.272****	1.000	0.874**	0.860**	0.354**
Continuance commitment *(High personal sacrifice)*– CC (HPS)	**0.416****	**0.874****	1.000	0.505**	0.474**
Continuance commitment *(Low perceived alternatives)* – CC (LALT)	**0.046ns**	**0.860****	**0.505****	1.000	0.131**
Normative commitment - NC	**0.649****	**0.354****	**0.474****	**0.131****	1.000

**** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); ns – not significant**

The pattern of correlations among the affective, continuance, and normative commitment scales was considerably stronger among the Kenyan sample than in the North America samples (see Meyer *et al*., 2002). As expected, the correlation between affective commitment and normative commitment was substantial (r = 0.649, $p < 0.01$), suggesting a considerable overlap in the two constructs. Continuance commitment had a stronger correlation with normative commitment (r = 0.354, $p < 0.01$) than with affective commitment (r = 0.272, $p < 0.01$). CC: LALT had a positive non-significant relationship with affective commitment (r = 0.046, $p > 0.05$) and a weak significant positive correlation with normative commitment (r = 0.131, $p < 0.01$). This suggests that employees who remained in their universities due to the perception of the existence of limited employment opportunities in the labour market were unlikely to develop any attachment or loyalty to their universities. Consistent with previous studies (Meyer et al., 2002; Cheng and Stockdale, 2003), CC: HPS had moderate positive correlations with affective commitment (r = 0.416, $p < 0.01$) and normative commitment (r = 0.474, $p < 0.01$). Meyer *et al* (2002) attributed these moderate correlations to collectivists' societies whereby the differences between loyalty and obligation may be less distinct than in Western cultures.

7.4 Bivariate statistical analyses

This section presents the results of bivariate statistical analyses exploring whether there are any occupational group and sector differences in mean scores for job and role-related factors and HRM practices. These analyses were carried out using Independent samples t-test.

7.4.1 Job and role-related factors

Several studies have found that role stressors, namely; role conflict (irreconcilable demands), role ambiguity (lack of clear information about job expectations) and role overload (demands for too much work in too little time) were negatively correlated with job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and positively correlated with turnover intentions (Fisher and Gitelson, 1983; Jackson and Schuler, 1985; King and Sethi, 1997). On the other hand, studies have shown that job satisfaction and organisational commitment increased when employees performed enriched jobs characterised by skills variety, job autonomy, feedback and support in the workplace (Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Mottaz, 1988; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Brown and Peterson, 1993; Bhuian and Menguc, 2002; Latham, 2007). Consequently, employees who perform enriched jobs are more likely to cope with role stress than employees on un-enriched jobs. The correlations among the role stressors and job characteristics are shown in Appendix G. Based on the literature, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 3c: Employees from public universities will have significantly higher levels of role stress than employee in private universities.

Hypothesis 3d: Role stress will be significantly higher among administrative employees than academic employees

Hypothesis 4d: Satisfaction with job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, feedback, task variety, co-worker and supervisory support) will be significantly higher in private universities than in public universities.

Hypothesis 4e: Academic employees will be more satisfied with their job characteristics than administrative employees.

7.4.1.1 Role stressors and university sector

Independent samples t-test was carried out to determine whether there were any sector differences in the levels of role stress, as shown in Table 7.8.

Table 7.8: Independent samples t-test exploring role stressors in public and private universities

	Public	Private	t-value
Role overload	12.18 (3.23)	11.19 (2.71)	4.014***
Role conflict	8.95 (2.44)	7.95 (2.45)	5.197***
Role ambiguity	12.02 (3.33)	11.63 (3.18)	1.506ns

****** $p < 0.001$; ns – not significant***

The results indicate that there were no significant sector differences in the mean scores for role ambiguity ($p > 0.05$). However, the results show that respondents from public universities experienced significantly higher levels of role overload (M = 12.18) than respondents from private universities (M = 11.19, $p < 0.001$). The implementation of the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) in the public sector in Kenya in 2000/2001 led to the retrenchment of 3,203 employees from public universities and a freeze on further recruitment of new employees. The subsequent rapid expansion of public universities and increased intake of students without recruitment of new employees meant that existing employees had to carry extra work load. The results also indicate that employees from public universities experienced more role conflict (M = 8.95) than employees from private universities (M = 7.95, $p < 0.001$). This is consistent with the management systems in public universities where employees do not have clear reporting structures or clear knowledge of what is expected of them.

7.4.1.2 Role stressors and occupational groups

Independent samples t-test was carried out to determine whether there were any occupational group differences in the levels of role stress, as shown in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9: Independent samples t-test comparing role stressors and occupational groups

Variables	Academic	Administrative	t
Public universities			
Role overload	12.51 (3.37)	11.87 (3.07)	2.642**
Role conflict	8.75 (2.29)	9.13 (2.56)	-2.059*
Role ambiguity	11.40 (3.18)	12.59 (3.37)	-4.891***
Private universities			
Role overload	11.35 (2.76)	11.05 (2.66)	0.810ns
Role conflict	7.97 (2.52)	7.94 (2.41)	0.101ns
Role ambiguity	11.60 (2.79)	11.66 (3.53)	-0.137ns

****** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; ns – not significant***

The analysis in Table 7.9 shows that there were no occupational group differences in the levels of role stress among respondents from private universities ($p > 0.05$). Unlike public universities, private universities were more likely to be focused and have clearly designed HRM policies which ensure that jobs are well defined and designed, so that employees are not overloaded or perform jobs without clear instructions.

The results indicate that academic staff respondents from public universities experienced higher levels of role overload (M = 12.51) than administrative staff (M = 11.87, $p < 0.001$). Several factors may account for these results; firstly, the rapid expansion of public universities and student enrolment within the last two decades without commensurate increase of lecturers has strained the ability of academics who are forced to handle large classes; secondly, the introduction of three semesters in one calendar year consisting of 10 weeks each, and the frequent closures of universities due to students' unrest, has meant that lecturers have had to work under pressure to complete teaching and marking within a short time. Thirdly, the reduction of government funding has forced public universities to be involved in business ventures, such as the introduction of self sponsored programmes[14] resulting in increased work load for academic employees. Tetty (2006) states that high academic: student ratios in most African universities make the marking, grading, supervision and regular consultations with students a huge challenge, resulting in demoralised workforce.

The results also indicate that administrative staff respondents from public universities experienced significantly higher levels of role conflict (M = 9.13) than academic staff (M = 8.75, $p < 0.05$). Similarly, role ambiguity was higher among administrative staff respondents (M = 12.59) than academic staff (M = 11.40, $p < 0.05$). This shows that clarity of expectations regarding the job and clear reporting structures are important aspects in determining administrative employees' commitment and job satisfaction.

[14] These programmes cater for students who do not get government bursaries and therefore pay fees at the market rate. These programmes run in the evenings and weekends.

7.4.1.3 Job characteristics and university sector

Independent samples t-test was carried out to determine whether there were any sector differences in satisfaction with the job characteristics.

Table 7.10: Independent samples t-test comparing job-related variables and sector

Job-related variables	Public	Private	t-value
Job autonomy	15.88 (3.69)	16.09 (3.75)	-0.720ns
Feedback	8.49 (3.04)	9.25 (2.75)	-3.264***
Task variety	6.37 (1.87)	6.67 (1.93)	-2.051*
Co-worker support	10.79 (2.56)	10.87 (2.53)	-0.390ns
Supervisory support	13.42 (3.89)	14.75 (3.12)	-4.556***

***** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05; ns – not significant**

The results in Table 7.10 indicate that the mean scores of respondents from both public and private universities did not differ significantly for job autonomy and co-worker support ($p > 0.05$). However, respondents from private universities had significantly higher mean scores for feedback, task variety and supervisory support than respondents from public universities ($p < 0.05$). This suggests that, unlike employees from public universities, employees from private universities perform challenging and meaningful jobs characterised by task variety, supervisory support and adequate feedback to let them know how well they were performing their jobs.

7.4.1.4 Job characteristics and occupational groups

Independent samples t-test was carried out to determine whether there were any occupational group differences in the satisfaction with job characteristics.

Table 7.10: Independent samples t-test comparing job-related variables among academic and administrative employees

Variables	Academic	Administrative	t
	Public universities		
Job autonomy	16.47 (3.59)	15.33 (3.69)	4.199***
Feedback	8.37 (2.92)	8.60 (3.15)	-1.002ns
Task variety	6.46 (1.94)	6.28 (1.81)	1.321ns
Co-worker support	10.66 (2.53)	10.92 (2.58)	-1.345ns
Supervisory support	13.71 (3.79)	13.15 (3.96)	1.917ns
	Private universities		
Job autonomy	16.19 (3.89)	15.99 (3.61)	0.383ns
Feedback	9.23 (2.21)	9.28 (3.17)	-0.119ns
Task variety	6.60 (2.06)	6.73 (1.79)	-0.501ns
Co-worker support	10.62 (2.49)	11.10 (2.55)	-1.374ns
Supervisory support	14.53 (3.32)	14.95 (2.91)	-0.983ns

***** $p < 0.001$**

The results in Table 7.11 indicate that there were no occupational group differences in the mean scores of job characteristics in private universities ($p > 0.05$). This suggests that private universities have structured the jobs of both academic and administrative employees with the aim of maximising their employees' skills and output. It also signifies greater cohesion among employees in private universities, irrespective of the position held. Similarly, academic and administrative staff respondents from public universities did not differ significantly in their mean scores for feedback, task variety, co-worker and supervisory support ($p > 0.05$). However, their mean scores for job autonomy differed, with the academic staff respondents having higher mean scores (M = 16.47) than administrative staff respondents (M = 15.33, $p < 0.05$). This suggests that academic employees in public universities had more freedom in scheduling their work and deciding on the procedures to follow when discharging their duties than administrative employees who operate under a set of formalised rules and procedures.

7.4.2 Professional commitment

Professional commitment is defined as the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a profession (Aranya, Pollock and Amernic, 1981). Gouldner (1957) used the concepts of 'cosmopolitan' and 'local' to describe employees' loyalty

to their professions and organisations. 'Cosmopolitans' are high on professional commitment, low on organisational commitment and are externally oriented while 'locals' are low on professional commitment, high on organisational commitment and are internally oriented. Based on the literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5b: Academic employees will have significantly higher levels of professional commitment than administrative employees

Independent samples t-test was carried out to determine whether there were any occupational group differences in the levels of professional commitment.

Table 7.14: Independent samples t-test comparing professional commitment among academic and administrative employees

Occupational group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value
Academic	446	12.51	2.412	2.692**
Non-academic	486	12.08	2.446	

**** $p < 0.01$**

The t-test results in Table 7.14 indicates that academic staff respondents had significantly higher mean scores for professional commitment (M = 12.51, $p < 0.01$) than administrative staff (M = 12.08, $p < 0.01$). This is consistent with studies have shown that non-professional employees who perform meaningless and unchallenging jobs have lower commitment to their professions as compared to employees in high status jobs (Ritzer and Trice, 1969; Cohen, 1992).

7.4.3 Human resource management practices

The objective of this study was to determine the role of human resource management practices in influencing organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Previous studies have found HRM practices as significant predictors of employee commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to leave the organisation (Oglivie, 1986; Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Meyer and Smith, 2000; McElroy, 2001). The correlations among the HRM practices with organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions are in Appendix H. Based on the literature, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 6c: Satisfaction with HRM practices will be significantly higher among employees from private universities than employees from public universities**.**

Hypothesis 6d: Academic employees will be more satisfied with their universities HRM practices than administrative employees.

7.4.3.1 HRM practices and university sector

Independent samples t-test was carried out to establish whether there were any sector differences in the satisfaction with HRM practices, as shown in Table 7.12.

Table 7.15: Independent samples t-test comparing HRM practices and sector

Variables	Public	Private	t
Job security	14.94 (3.86)	15.99 (3.83)	-3.445***
Promotional opportunities	11.51 (3.07)	12.70 (2.99)	-4.956***
Training opportunities	16.17 (3.91)	17.76 (3.50)	-5.618***
Pay satisfaction	10.42 (3.65)	13.42 (4.14)	-9.535***
Distributive justice	14.16 (4.94)	17.73 (4.87)	-9.229***
Performance appraisal	7.20 (2.70)	8.97 (2.80)	-8.261***
Participation in decision making	12.21 (4.13)	15.66 (3.49)	-12.051***
Career development	9.49 (2.75)	10.64 (2.49)	-5.432***

******** $p < 0.001$

The results in Table 7.12 indicate that the HRM practices in the private universities were more superior to those in the public universities. Private universities scored significantly higher mean scores in all the HRM practices than the public universities. Since private universities are for-profit organisations, they are likely to be professionally managed to ensure the maximum utilisation of their employees. To accomplish this, their HR practices are more likely to be guided by policy documents which are not subject to manipulation, unlike public universities. In addition, these private universities are guided by Christian principals.

As shown in the table above, job security was lower in public universities than in private universities. This may have resulted from the restructuring programme implemented in 2000/2001 as part of the Structural Adjustment Programmes, which may have left the survivors feeling insecure about the future of their jobs.

Respondents from private also had higher mean scores for promotional opportunities than respondents from public universities. This can be explained by the HRM policies in private universities which are devoid of manipulation. Contrary to the findings by Boyne, Jenkins and Pools (1999) staff training and development was higher in private universities than in public universities. This may be explained by a lack of training needs analysis in public universities which has resulted in most administrative employees undertake training programmes which were not only irrelevant to their work but also did not earn them any promotions, resulting in frustrations and resentments. Similarly, lack of human resource planning in public universities has affected employees' career development resulting in some employees stagnating in the same position for over 15 years despite acquiring additional academic qualifications.

Unlike private universities, performance appraisals in public universities have been affected by cultural and social issues. According to Kamoche *et al*. (2004), employees who have "godfathers" are spared negative feedback especially when the information is used to select employees for redundancy while some bosses used them to settle personal vendettas against appraisees.

The results also show that participation in decision making is lower in public universities than in private universities. The data indicates that 71.1% of the respondents from public universities were dissatisfied with the decision making process in their universities as compared to 37.3% respondents from private universities ($\chi 2$: 80.831, df: 2, p = 0.000). A possible explanation for this result is the 'top-down' management style in public universities which locks out employees from the decision making process. Mulinge (2001) also observes that "politics" have played a major role in decision making in the work environment in Kenya, making innovative employees vulnerable because they were likely to be penalised for decisions their superiors were not happy with.

Finally, the analysis indicates that respondents from public universities were more dissatisfied with their pay than respondents from private universities. The data shows that 86.4% of the respondents from public universities were dissatisfied with their pay as compared to 51.7% respondents from private universities ($\chi 2$: 117.247, df. 2,

p = 0.000). This has pushed most employees from public universities to seek alternative ways of supplementing their income (see Section 7.2.1). Consequently, respondents from private universities had higher mean scores for distributive justice than respondents from public universities. According to Kamoche *et al*. (2004) the remuneration of workers in the public sector in Kenya has been affected by unfair practices and lack of clear and consistent wage policies.

7.4.3.2HRM practices and occupational groups

Independent samples t-test was carried out to establish whether there were occupational group differences in HRM practices in public and private universities.

Table 7.16: Independent samples t-test results comparing HRM practices based on occupational groups

Variables	Academic	Administrative	t
Public universities			
Job security	14.93 (4.02)	14.95 (3.73)	-0.056ns
Promotional opportunities	11.98 (3.12)	11.08 (2.98)	3.984***
Training opportunities	16.54 (3.89)	15.83 (3.89)	2.450*
Pay satisfaction	10.17 (3.83)	10.66 (3.48)	-1.793ns
Distributive justice	13.69 (4.91)	14.60 (4.93)	-2.465*
Performance appraisal	7.30 (2.66)	7.11 (2.74)	0.942ns
Participation in decision making	12.32 (4.14)	12.11 (4.11)	0.700ns
Career development	9.65 (2.68)	9.34 (2.80)	1.521ns
Private universities			
Job security	15.97 (3.88)	16.00 (3.80)	-0.056ns
Promotional opportunities	12.59 (2.57)	12.80 (3.34)	-0.502ns
Training opportunities	17.60 (3.04)	17.91 (3.89)	-0.634ns
Pay satisfaction	13.58 (4.44)	13.32 (3.87)	0.451ns
Distributive justice	17.65 (5.03)	17.81 (4.73)	-0.233ns
Performance appraisal	9.02 (2.65)	8.93 (2.95)	0.240ns
Participation in decision making	15.76 (3.36)	15.57 (3.62)	0.395ns
Career development	10.44 (2.46)	10.82 (2.52)	-1.091ns

**** Significant at 0.05 level; ns – not significant**

The results in Table 7.13 indicate that satisfaction with HRM practices did not differ significantly among academic and administrative staff respondents from private universities (p > 0.05). This may be attributed to their superior HRM practices which address the needs of all their employees irrespective of their position in the hierarchy or occupational groups, resulting in cohesion among the employees.

The results show that academic staff respondents from public universities had higher mean scores for promotional opportunities (M = 11.98) than administrative staff respondents (M = 11.08, t = 3.984, $p < 0.05$). Unlike administrative employees, the promotion criteria for teaching staff in public universities are clearly spelt out, for example, the required number of publications, research and teaching requirements among others, such that only those who meet the specified criteria apply for promotions. On the other hand, the criteria for administrative staff are less specific and therefore, subject to negative practices such as favouritism, resulting in some employees serving in the same position for more than 10 years without a promotion. This has created resentment among the non-teaching employees who perceive the university management as being unconcerned about their welfare.

The results show that academic staff respondents had higher mean scores for training opportunities (M = 16.54) than administrative staff respondents (M = 15.85, $p < 0.05$). A possible explanation is that academics in public universities are funded when they attend short courses and workshops. In addition, they are encouraged to undertake their doctorate studies in their universities at no cost unlike administrative staff who have to pay for their own training.

Finally, administrative respondents had significantly higher mean scores for distributive justice (M = 14.60) than academic respondents (M = 13.69, $p < 0.05$). The data indicates that 71.4% of the academic staff respondents from public universities did not consider that they were rewarded fairly considering the responsibilities they had as compared to 62.1% of the administrative staff respondents ($\chi 2$: 10.211, df = 4, $p = 0.037$). It is possible that most of the administrative employees, who have uncompetitive skills in a flooded labour market, are grateful to have a job unlike academic employees who feel that they are not adequately compensated for their specialised skills.

7.5 Differences in the levels of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions

The study sought to establish whether there were any significant differences in

organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions based on the sector (private and public) or the occupational grouping of the respondents. Various studies have shown that organisational commitment and job satisfaction was higher among employees from private sector organisations than employees from the public sector (Buchanan, 1974b; Rainey *et al*., 1976; Mulinge, 2000; Obeng and Ugboro, 2003). Similarly, some studies have found that professional (e.g. lawyers, doctors) and non-professional (e.g. janitors, clerks) employees differed in their levels of organisational commitment and satisfaction (Ritzer and Trice, 1969; Cohen, 1992). Based on the literature, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 7a: Employees from private universities will have significantly higher levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and are less likely to intend to turnover than employees from public universities.

Hypothesis 7b: Academics will have significantly higher levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and are more likely to turnover than administrative employees.

Independent samples t-test was used to analyse sector and occupational group differences in organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

7.5.1 Sector differences

Table 7.17: Independent sample t-test results comparing organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to turnover between private and public universities

Dependent variables	Public	Private	t
Affective commitment	19.52 (5.433)	22.00 (4.810)	-6.382***
Continuance commitment *(high personal sacrifice)*	8.93 (3.047)	9.27 (2.685)	-1.556ns
Continuance commitment *(low perceived alternatives)*	9.22 (2.827)	8.49 (2.758)	3.293***
Normative commitment	18.43 (4.767)	20.06 (4.286)	-4.703***
Extrinsic job satisfaction	24.34 (4.862)	27.19 (4.781)	-7.491***
Intrinsic job satisfaction	20.91 (5.166)	23.51 (4.849)	-6.495***
Intentions to turnover	7.85 (3.328)	7.73 (3.429)	0.466ns

****Significant at the 0.001 level; ns – not significant**

The analysis in Table 7.17 indicates that respondents from public and private universities did not differ significantly in their mean scores for CC: HPS and turnover intentions ($p > 0.05$). However, respondents from private universities had higher levels of affective commitment, normative commitment and job satisfaction than respondents from public universities ($p < 0.001$). This suggests that employees from private universities enjoy psychologically rewarding work experiences which make

them feel attached and loyal to the universities.

The results showed that public universities respondents had higher mean scores for CC: LALT than respondents from private universities ($p < 0.05$). This suggests that employees from public universities perceived that they would have fewer alternative job opportunities elsewhere if they were to quit their universities. A possible explanation is that due to ethnic and political manipulation in the recruitment and selection of administrative employees, public universities have been overstaffed with employees whose skills are not competitive in the labour market (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007).

7.5.2 Occupational group differences

Table 7.18: Independent sample t-test results comparing organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to turnover among academic and administrative staff

	Academic	Administrative	t
Public universities			
Affective commitment	19.32 (5.624)	19.69 (5.252)	-0.925ns
Continuance commitment *(high personal sacrifice)*	8.66 (3.076)	9.17 (3.003)	-2.244**
Continuance commitment *(low perceived alternatives)*	8.76 (2.826)	9.64 (2.766)	-4.211****
Normative commitment	17.86 (5.000)	18.96 (4.484)	-3.124***
Extrinsic job satisfaction	23.70 (4.888)	24.93 (4.768)	-3.443****
Intrinsic job satisfaction	21.31 (5.033)	20.54 (5.265)	2.008**
Intentions to turnover	7.84 (3.491)	7.87 (3.176)	-0.151ns
Private universities			
Affective commitment	21.95 (4.425)	22.05 (5.157)	-0.144ns
Continuance commitment *(high personal sacrifice)*	9.40 (2.292)	9.15 (3.006)	0.680ns
Continuance commitment *(low perceived alternatives)*	8.33 (2.659)	8.64 (2.850)	-0.817ns
Normative commitment	19.74 (4.251)	20.35 (4.317)	-1.026ns
Extrinsic job satisfaction	26.97 (4.892)	27.39 (4.690)	-0.640ns
Intrinsic job satisfaction	23.77 (4.572)	23.27 (5.098)	0.750ns
Intentions to turnover	7.93 (3.121)	7.55 (3.693)	0.799ns

****** $p < 0.001$; *** $p < 0.01$; $p < 0.05$ level; ns – not significant**

The analysis in Table 7.18 indicates that academic and administrative staff respondents from private universities did not differ significantly in their mean scores of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions ($p > 0.05$). Because of their religious orientation, it is likely that the power distance between the academic and administrative staff is quite small. For instance, these private

universities hold weekly prayer and forums which are attended by all the members of staff, irrespective of their position in the hierarchy.

The results have shown that administrative staff respondents from public universities had significantly higher mean scores for continuance commitment, normative commitment and extrinsic job satisfaction than academic staff respondents ($p < 0.05$). On the other hand, academic staff respondents scored significantly higher mean scores for intrinsic job satisfaction than administrative staff respondents ($p < 0.05$). This implies that, unlike administrative employees, academic employees perform challenging jobs which give them more autonomy, responsibilities and recognition.

7.6 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the descriptive statistics of the respondents and their universities using frequency tables, percentages and means. This was followed by exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis to determine the dimensionality of Meyer and Allen's conceptualisation of organisational commitment in a Kenyan context. Exploratory factor analysis revealed that multidimensional organisational commitment consisted of three factors, namely affective, continuance and normative commitment, thus supporting hypothesis 1a. In addition, continuance commitment was found to be bi-dimensional consisting of 'high personal sacrifices' and 'low perceived alternatives', supporting hypothesis 1b. The study concludes that multidimensional organisational commitment and bi-dimensional continuance commitment is applicable to a Kenyan context.

The results of independent samples t-test found that academics who were involved in 'moonlighting' activities had significantly lower levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction than academics who were not involved in these activities. There were no significant differences in the mean scores of turnover intentions. On the other hand, there were no significant differences in the mean scores of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among administrative employees who were involved and those who were not involved in moonlighting activities, thus partially supporting hypothesis 2a.

The results showed that employees from public universities experienced more role

stress than employees from private universities, thus supporting hypothesis 3a. Further, administrative employees experience higher levels of role ambiguity and role conflict while academic employees experience more role overload, partially supporting hypothesis 3d. On the other hand, hypothesis 4c was supported since employees from private universities performed more challenging and enriched jobs as compared to their counterparts from public universities. The results showed that the mean scores for professional commitment were higher among academics than administrative employees, supporting hypothesis 5b.

Finally, the bivariate data analysis has shown that employees from private universities were more satisfied with their HRM practices than employees from public universities, supporting hypothesis 6c. This is consistent with private sector organisations which are considered to be more focused, autonomous and people-oriented. The results also showed that academic and administrative staff from public universities differed significantly in their mean scores for HRM practices, partially supporting hypothesis 6d. Consequently, the mean scores for organisational commitment and job satisfaction was higher for employees from private universities than employees from public universities, supporting hypothesis 7a. Finally, hypothesis 7b was partially supported since administrative employees from public universities had higher mean scores for continuance commitment, normative commitment and extrinsic job satisfaction, while academic employees had higher mean scores for intrinsic job satisfaction.

The next chapter presents the results of further statistical analyses using multiple and stepwise regressions.

CHAPTER EIGHT

Exploration of relationships and tests of hypotheses

8.1 Introduction

The results of the statistical analyses of this study are presented in this chapter. The purpose of the data analyses are to explore relationships and carry out tests of hypotheses among the various variables of the study. These relationships are between on the one hand the independent variables namely – demographic variables (i.e. age, gender, marital status, tenure and education), role stressors (i.e. role overload, role conflict and role ambiguity), job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, feedback, task variety, co-worker and supervisory support) and HRM practices (i.e. job security, training opportunities, promotional opportunities, pay, distributive justice, performance appraisal and career development), and the dependent variables namely - organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to turnover. The data analyses aim to address the following objectives of the study:

- To examine the extent to which demographic characteristics, role stressors, professional commitment, job characteristics and HRM practices influenced organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among employees in public and private universities (Chapter 1, p. 10, Objective 3).
- To establish the extent to which organisational commitment and job satisfaction influenced intentions to turnover among administrative and academic employees (Chapter 1, p. 10, Objective 4).
- To identify the factors that contribute to the organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions of employees in Kenyan universities (Chapter 1, p. 10, Objective 5).

In this chapter, hierarchical regression analysis has been carried out to determine the extent to which the independent variables (i.e. demographic variables, professional commitment, role stressors, job characteristics and HRM practices) predicted the dependent variables (i.e. organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover

intentions) among academic and administrative employees in public and private universities. The demographic variables that were simultaneously entered into the regression procedure are as follows: age, gender (coded as a dummy variable, where Male = 0, Female = 1), marital status (Unmarried = 0, Married = 1), tenure (job), tenure (position), education, occupation (Academic = 0, administrative = 1) and university sector (Public = 0, Private = 1).

8.2 Combined effect of demographic characteristics, role stressors, professional commitment, job characteristics and HRM practices on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions

In these analyses, all the independent variables were all entered in steps (or blocks) into hierarchical multiple regressions with organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions as the dependent variables. The aim of these analyses was to find out whether job characteristics minimised the negative relationships between role stressors and the dependent variables (i.e. job satisfaction and organisational commitment) and also whether HRM practices altered the relationships between demographic variables, role stressors, professional commitment, job characteristics and the dependent variables. In addition, Stepwise regression analysis was conducted to find out the best combination of independent variables to predict organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions of academic and administrative employees in Kenyan universities. These variables will be used in developing the final model of the study. The first section of the analyses will determine whether there are any sector and occupational group differences in the levels of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions; secondly, to identify factors that influence organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions, and lastly, determine the extent to which organisational commitment and job satisfaction predicted turnover intentions of employees in public and private universities.

Prior to carrying out multiple regression analysis, it was important to ensure that the independent variables were not too highly correlated, which is an indication of multicollinearity of the data. Some studies suggest that the correlation coefficients *r* should not exceed 0.75 (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989; Pallant, 2005)

while others suggest that it should not exceed 0.80 (Bryman and Cramer, 1990). In this study the highest correlation was between pay satisfaction and distributive justice ($r = -0.698$, $p < 0.01$). Further, a regression diagnostic test to detect the presence of multicollinearity was carried out using SPSS by examining the values of variance inflation factor (VIF). The results revealed that VIF values in this study ranged from 1.2 to 2.5 which is much lower than the recommended cut-off threshold of 10 (Hair *et al*., 1998; Pallant, 2005) thus suggesting the absence of multicollinearity in the data.

In this regard, the analyses will address the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis Eight:

H8a: Demographic characteristics, role stressors, professional commitment, job characteristics and HRM practices are significant stronger predictors of (a) affective commitment (b) continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice and low perceived alternatives) (c) normative commitment, and (d) overall organisational commitment among academic employees than administrative employees in public and private universities.

H8b: Demographic characteristics, role stressors, professional commitment, job characteristics and HRM practices are significant stronger predictors of (a) extrinsic job satisfaction and (b) intrinsic job satisfaction among academic employees than administrative employees in public and private universities.

H8c: Demographic characteristics, role stressors, professional commitment, job characteristics and HRM practices will be significant stronger predictors of turnover intentions among academic employees than administrative employees in public and private universities.

Hypothesis Nine:

Organisational commitment and job satisfaction will be significant stronger negative predictors of turnover intentions among academic employees than administrative employees.

During the data analysis and hypotheses testing, the following outcomes are expected to be obtained:-

i. Role stressors (i.e. role overload, role conflict and role ambiguity) will be negatively correlated to (a) affective commitment; normative commitment, continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives/high personal sacrifice) and overall organisational commitment; b) intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and c) positively correlated to turnover intentions.

ii. Job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, feedback, task variety, co-worker support and supervisory support) will be positively correlated to affective commitment; continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives/high personal sacrifice); normative commitment and overall organisational commitment; b) intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction; and c) negatively correlated with turnover intentions.

iii. HRM practices (i.e. job security, promotional opportunities, training opportunities, pay satisfaction, distributive justice, performance appraisal, participation in decision making and career development) will be positively correlated to a) affective commitment; continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives/high personal sacrifice); normative commitment and overall organisational commitment; b) intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction; and c) negatively correlated with turnover intentions.

The results of the hierarchical and stepwise regression analyses are presented below:

8.2.1. The influence of independent variables on organisational commitment among academic and administrative employees

1a) Prediction of affective commitment among academic employees

Table 8.1: Hierarchical multiple regression predicting affective commitment among academic employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.155*	0.132*	0.122*	0.093†	0.070
Gender (Male = 0)	-0.047	-0.011	-0.013	-0.005	-0.043
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	-0.022	-0.005	-0.024	-0.049	-0.031
Tenure (Job)	-0.087	-0.110†	-0.143*	-0.093†	-0.072
Tenure (Position)	-0.069	-0.060	-0.040	-0.019	-0.006
Education	-0.048	-0.028	0.004	-0.019	-0.031
University sector (Public = 0)	0.169***	0.153***	0.170***	0.140***	0.029
Role overload		-0.096*	-0.098*	-0.003	0.024
Role conflict		-0.041	-0.032	-0.073	-0.057
Role ambiguity		-0.294***	-0.238***	-0.096†	-0.084†
Professional commitment			0.208***	0.182***	0.161***
Job autonomy				0.043	0.024
Feedback				0.147**	-0.004
Task variety				0.285***	0.168***
Co-worker support				-0.073	-0.043
Supervisory support				0.086†	0.044
Job security					0.046
Promotion					0.092†
Training opportunities					0.053
Pay satisfaction					0.122*
Distributive justice					0.141*
Performance appraisal					-0.018
Participation in decision making					0.142**
Career development					0.060
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.059**	**0.180**	**0.217**	**0.341**	**0.468**
Adjusted R^2	**0.044**	**0.161**	**0.197**	**0.316**	**0.438**
R^2 Change	**0.059**	**0.121**	**0.037**	**0.124**	**0.128**
F (ANOVA)	**3.947****	**9.537****	**10.920****	**13.865****	**15.453****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The regression results in Table 8.1 indicate that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 46.8% of the variance in affective commitment among academic employees in Kenyan universities. The R^2 Change values indicate that the most important groups of independent variables were role stressors, job characteristics and HRM practices. The results show that age and job tenure (Model 1) were the only demographic characteristics which significantly predicted affective commitment. The

positive beta coefficients for university sector suggest that academics from private universities had higher levels of affective commitment than academics from public universities. Role overload and role ambiguity (Model 2) were significant negative predictors of affective commitment while professional commitment (Model 3) was a positive predictor. The results also indicate that the inclusion of job characteristics (Model 4) into the regression equation altered the relationship between role stressors and affective commitment, such that role overload became non-significant while the magnitude of role ambiguity reduced substantially. Finally, promotional opportunities, pay, distributive justice and participation in decision making were the only HRM practices which significantly predicted affective commitment (Model 5).

The results of Stepwise regression analysis are presented in Table 8.2 below.

Table 8.2: Stepwise regression analysis predicting affective commitment among academic employees

	B	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficients (β)**	**t**
(Constant)	8.920	2.991		2.982
Role Ambiguity	-0.205	0.073	-0.116	-2.818**
Professional commitment	0.369	0.086	0.162	4.290***
Task variety	0.473	0.114	0.169	4.146***
Promotional opportunities	0.213	0.077	0.117	2.756**
Pay satisfaction	0.184	0.071	0.142	2.589**
Distributive justice	0.155	0.059	0.147	2.632**
Participation in decision making	0.213	0.062	0.165	3.457***
Career development	0.156	0.094	0.075	1.663†
$R = 0.672$ **$R^2 = 0.451$** **Adjusted $R^2 = 0.441$** **$F = 44.870$** **$p = 0.000$**				

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The results of the stepwise regression analysis indicated that only eight out of the 24 independent variables accounted for 45.1% ($R^2 = 0.451$) of the variance in affective commitment among academic employees. The beta coefficients show that task variety ($\beta = 0.169$, $p < 0.001$), participation in decision making ($\beta = 0.165$, $p < 0.001$) and professional commitment ($\beta = 0.162$, $p < 0.001$) made the strongest individual contribution in explaining affective commitment while career development contributed the least variance ($\beta = 0.075$, $p < 0.1$).

1b) Prediction of affective commitment among administrative employees

Table 8.3: Hierarchical multiple regression predicting affective commitment among administrative employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.156*	0.104†	0.088	0.093†	0.093†
Gender (Male = 0)	0.026	0.044	0.048	0.104*	0.110**
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	-0.002	0.008	0.003	0.005	0.019
Tenure (Job)	0.013	0.023	0.038	0.066	0.046
Tenure (Position)	-0.035	-0.038	-0.031	-0.056	-0.006
Education	0.034	0.060	0.051	0.016	0.002
University sector (Public = 0)	0.215***	0.168***	0.191***	0.148***	0.062
Role overload		-0.048	-0.042	0.008	0.042
Role conflict		-0.009	-0.018	-0.025	0.014
Role ambiguity		-0.282***	-0.235***	-0.016	0.006
Professional commitment			0.168***	0.128**	0.096*
Job autonomy				0.265***	0.182***
Feedback				0.095†	0.006
Task variety				-0.009	-0.034
Co-worker support				0.041	0.019
Supervisory support				0.168***	0.098*
Job security					0.070
Promotion					-0.005
Training opportunities					0.111*
Pay satisfaction					0.003
Distributive justice					0.088
Performance appraisal					0.091
Participation in decision making					0.097†
Career development					0.094†
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.057**	**0.142**	**0.167**	**0.296**	**0.377**
Adjusted R^2	**0.043**	**0.124**	**0.148**	**0.272**	**0.345**
R^2 Change	**0.057**	**0.085**	**0.025**	**0.129**	**0.081**
F (ANOVA)	**4.138****	**7.853****	**8.637****	**12.348****	**11.636****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The regression results in Table 8.3 indicate that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 37.7% of the variance in affective commitment among administrative employees in Kenyan universities. This means that the independent variables were stronger predictors of affective commitment among academic employees than administrative employees. The R^2 Change values indicate that job characteristics were the most important variables in influencing employees' psychological attachment. Among the demographic characteristics (Model 1), age and university sector were significant predictors of affective commitment. Among the role stressors (Model 2), only role ambiguity was a significant negative predictor of

affective commitment while professional commitment (Model 3) was a positive predictor. The results indicate that job characteristics (Model 4) minimised the negative relationship between role ambiguity and affective commitment. When job characteristics were introduced into the equation, a significant gender effect was found – with females displaying higher affective commitment. This suggests that non-teaching female workers found their job characteristics to be more favourable than their male colleagues and thus, when these characteristics were excluded, the gender effect was obscured.

Finally, training opportunities, participation in decision making and career development were the most significant HRM practices (Model 5). University sector became non-significant ($p > 0.05$) when HRM practices were added into the equation. This suggests that satisfaction with these HRM practices positively influenced the psychological attachment of administrative employees irrespective of their universities sector.

Table 8.4: Stepwise regression analysis predicting affective commitment among administrative employees

	B	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficients (β)**	**t**
(Constant)	-0.427	1.599		-0.267
Age	0.680	0.237	0.111	2.873**
Gender	1.147	0.411	0.107	2.792**
Professional commitment	0.182	0.085	0.084	2.139*
Job autonomy	0.262	0.064	0.181	4.126***
Supervisory support	0.163	0.060	0.117	2.720**
Training opportunities	0.166	0.067	0.125	2.486*
Distributive justice	0.128	0.049	0.122	2.590**
Participation in decision making	0.186	0.061	0.149	3.045**
Career development	0.185	0.099	0.098	1.877†
R = 0.604	**R^2 = 0.365**	**Adjusted R^2 = 0.353**	***F* = 30.354**	***p* = 0.000**

***** *p* < 0.001; ** *p* < 0.01; * *p* < 0.05; † *p* < 0.10**

The results of Stepwise regression analysis in Table 8.4 indicate that nine of the 24 independent variables accounted for 36.5% ($R^2 = 0.365$) of the variance in affective commitment among administrative respondents. The beta coefficients show that job autonomy ($\beta = 0.181$, $p < 0.001$) and participation in decision making ($\beta = 0.149$, $p < 0.001$) contributed the highest variance in explaining affective commitment among administrative employees respondents while career development ($\beta = 0.098$,

$p < 0.1$) contributed the least variance.

Table 8.5 below shows common and different antecedent variables which influenced affective commitment among academic and administrative employees.

Table 8.5: Common antecedent variables of affective commitment

Academic Employees	Dependent Variables	Administrative employees
Professional commitment (+) *Distributive justice* (+) *Participation in decision making* (+) *Career development* (+) Role ambiguity (-) Task variety (+) Promotional opportunities (+) Pay satisfaction (+)	**Affective commitment**	*Professional commitment* (+) *Distributive justice* (+) *Participation in decision making*(+) *Career development* (+) Age (+) Gender (Female) Job autonomy (+) Supervisory support (+) Training opportunities (+)

Notes: Italicised variables indicate common variables for academic and administrative employees
Direction of the relationships indicated in parenthesis

The results show that professional commitment, distributive justice, participation in decision making and career development were common antecedents of affective commitment among academic and administrative employees. The positive beta coefficients suggest that affective commitment was higher among employees who were committed to their professions, who had the opportunity to participate in the decision making process (Thornhill *et al*., 1996; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Allen and Meyer, 1991; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Malhotra *et al*., 2007), who perceived their rewards to be fair (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Sweeney and McFarlin, 1993) and who received support in developing their careers (Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Meyer and Smith, 2000; Paul and Anantharaman, 2004).

Consistent with the literature, academic employees who experienced role ambiguity lowered their psychological attachment to their universities (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer *et al*., 2002). In addition, affective commitment was high for academic employees who performed variety of tasks, had adequate promotional opportunities (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Iles *et al*., 1990; Meyer and Smith, 2000; Malhotra *et al*., 2007) and were satisfied with their pay (McElroy, 2001; Meyer and Smith, 2000).

Among the administrative employees, affective commitment was higher among older employees (Meyer and Allen, 1984; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Allen and Meyer,

1990). Although previous studies have found weak or non-significant correlations between gender and organisational commitment, the results have shown that female administrative employees had higher affective commitment than their male employees. A possible explanation is that most females have had to overcome various socio-cultural and educational challenges to become employees in their universities resulting in enhanced self-worth (Grusky, 1966; Onsongo, 2003; Mulinge, 2001a, 2001b; Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). Finally, employees who had job autonomy, received support from their supervisors and benefited from training programmes in their universities, developed stronger emotional attachment to their universities.

2a) Prediction of continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice) among academic employees

Table 8.6: Hierarchical multiple regression predicting continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice) among academic employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.238***	0.241***	0.235***	0.229***	0.190***
Gender (Male = 0)	0.032	0.043	0.042	0.048	0.001
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.042	0.042	0.030	0.027	0.045
Tenure (Job)	0.002	-0.008	-0.028	-0.022	0.006
Tenure (Position)	-0.039	-0.040	-0.028	-0.028	-0.049
Education	-0.119*	-0.108*	-0.089†	-0.092†	-0.101*
University sector (Public = 0)	0.096†	0.074	0.085†	0.074	-0.036
Role overload		-0.152**	-0.153**	-0.141**	-0.121*
Role conflict		0.018	0.024	0.010	0.021
Role ambiguity		-0.037	-0.002	0.042	0.027
Professional commitment			0.128**	0.128**	0.128**
Job autonomy				0.112†	0.100†
Feedback				0.099†	-0.061
Task variety				-0.056	-0.171**
Co-worker support				-0.054	-0.013
Supervisory support				0.009	-0.046
Job security					0.154**
Promotion					0.012
Training opportunities					-0.033
Pay satisfaction					0.079
Distributive justice					0.197**
Performance appraisal					0.131*
Participation in decision making					0.066
Career development					-0.027
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.068**	**0.092**	**0.106**	**0.126**	**0.237**
Adjusted R^2	**0.053**	**0.071**	**0.084**	**0.093**	**0.194**
R^2 Change	**0.068**	**0.024**	**0.014**	**0.019**	**0.112**
F (ANOVA)	**4.556****	**4.425****	**4.695****	**3.856****	**5.463****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The regression results in Table 8.6 indicate that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 23.7% ($R^2 = 0.237$) of the variance in CC: HPS among academic employees. The R^2 Change show that the strongest influence originated from demographic characteristics and HRM practices. The results show that age and education were significant predictors of continuance commitment. This suggests that older employees and employees with lower levels of education perceived leaving their jobs as a high personal sacrifice. Among the role stressors (Model 2), only role overload was a significant negative predictor of continuance commitment while professional commitment (Model 3) was a positive predictor. Among the job characteristics (Model 4), job autonomy and feedback were significant positive predictors of continuance commitment. Finally, the only significant HRM practices (Model 5) were job security, distributive justice and performance appraisal. It was noted that when HRM practices were introduced into the equation (Model 5), task variety became significant. The negative beta coefficient ($\beta = -0.171$, $p < 0.001$) is quite surprising as it suggests that academics who performed variety of tasks did not perceive leaving their universities as a personal sacrifice and vice versa.

The results of Stepwise regression analysis are shown below in Table 8.7.

Table 8.7: Stepwise regression analysis predicting continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice) among academic employees

	B	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficients**	**t**
(Constant)	4.075	1.263		3.227
Age	0.664	0.152	0.192	4.362***
Education	-0.271	0.143	-0.084	-1.891†
Role overload	-0.088	0.040	-0.098	-2.186*
Professional commitment	0.158	0.054	0.130	2.938**
Task variety	-0.203	0.073	-0.136	-2.784**
Job security	0.110	0.035	0.151	3.190**
Distributive justice	0.138	0.029	0.245	4.779***
Performance appraisal	0.115	0.055	0.107	2.083*
R = 0.467	**R^2 = 0.218**	**Adjusted R^2 = 0.204**	***F* = 15.213**	***p* = 0.000**

***** *p* < 0.001; ** *p* < 0.01; * *p* < 0.05; † *p* < 0.10**

The results indicate that the independent variables accounted for 21.8% of the variance in CC: HPS among academics. The beta coefficients show that distributive justice ($\beta = 0.245$, $p < 0.001$), age ($\beta = 0.192$, $p < 0.001$) and job security ($\beta = 0.151$, $p < 0.01$) contributed the highest variance in continuance commitment among

academic staff respondents while education (β = -0.084, $p < 0.10$) contributed the least variance.

2b) Prediction of continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice) among administrative employees

Table 8.8: Hierarchical multiple regression predicting continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice) among administrative employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.108†	0.077	0.074	0.081	0.058
Gender (Male = 0)	0.000	0.015	0.016	0.044	0.048
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.079	0.084†	0.083†	0.073	0.087†
Tenure (Job)	-0.070	-0.061	-0.058	-0.018	-0.009
Tenure (Position)	0.064	0.067	0.069	0.052	0.130*
Education	-0.134**	-0.118*	-0.119*	-0.132**	-0.155***
University sector (Public = 0)	0.020	0.007	0.011	-0.018	-0.090†
Role overload		0.014	0.015	0.057	0.088†
Role conflict		0.058	0.056	0.053	0.101*
Role ambiguity		-0.190***	-0.182***	-0.031	-0.027
Professional commitment			0.029	0.000	-0.021
Job autonomy				0.056	-0.029
Feedback				0.080	0.011
Task variety				-0.049	-0.065
Co-worker support				0.091†	0.049
Supervisory support				0.215***	0.138*
Job security					0.089†
Promotion					0.138*
Training opportunities					-0.036
Pay satisfaction					0.021
Distributive justice					0.196**
Performance appraisal					0.036
Participation in decision making					0.021
Career development					0.095
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.038**	**0.069**	**0.069**	**0.142**	**0.245**
Adjusted R^2	**0.024**	**0.049**	**0.048**	**0.112**	**0.205**
R^2 Change	**0.038**	**0.031**	**0.001**	**0.072**	**0.103**
F (ANOVA)	**2.672****	**3.502****	**3.216****	**4.838****	**6.220****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The regression results in Table 8.8 indicate that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 24.5% of the variance in CC: HPS among administrative employees. This implies that the independent variables were stronger predictors of CC: HPS among administrative staff respondents than academic staff respondents. The strongest influence in the regression equation was attributed to job characteristics

and HRM practices. The results show that education was a significant negative predictor of continuance commitment. Role ambiguity (Model 2) was a significant negative predictor while professional commitment (Model 3) did not make any significant contribution. The results indicate that when role stressors were added into the equation, marital status became significant. The positive beta coefficients for marital status suggest that the personal benefits (side-bets) that married employees had accrued in their universities outweighed the negative impact from role stress. Among the job characteristics (Model 4), only supervisory and co-worker support were significant positive predictors of continuance commitment. The negative relationship between role ambiguity and continuance commitment diminished when job characteristics were added into the equation.

The most significant HRM practices (Model 5) were job security, promotional opportunities and distributive justice. It was noted that when HRM practices were introduced into the equation (Model 5), university sector, position tenure, role overload and role conflict became significant. The negative beta coefficient for university sector ($\beta = -0.090$, $p < 0.1$) suggests that administrative employees from public universities perceived leaving their universities as a high personal sacrifice when they were assured of job security, guaranteed upward mobility and perceived their universities as being fair to them. Contrary to the expectations of this study, role overload ($\beta = 0.088$, $p < 0.1$) and role conflict ($\beta = 0.101$, $p < 0.01$) were positive predictors of continuance commitment. This suggests that the benefits of retaining membership in their universities outweighed the work-related stress. Finally, the positive beta coefficient for position tenure ($\beta = 0.130$, $p < 0.05$) suggests that employees who had been in the same position for a long time developed high costs associated with leaving their jobs, especially when they had job security and adequate promotional opportunities.

The results of Stepwise regression analysis are shown in Table 8.9 below.

Table 8.9: Stepwise regression analysis predicting continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice) among administrative employees

	B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (β)	t
(Constant)	0.138	1.329		0.104
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.625	0.306	0.087	2.043†
Tenure (Position)	0.493	0.150	0.148	3.276***
Education	-0.446	0.123	-0.153	-3.623***
University sector (Public = 0)	-0.575	0.319	-0.080	-1.800†
Role overload	0.084	0.044	0.084	1.930†
Role conflict	0.100	0.052	0.085	1.930†
Supervisory support	0.121	0.036	0.154	3.349***
Job security	0.066	0.038	0.082	1.749†
Promotional opportunities	0.142	0.050	0.149	2.859**
Distributive justice	0.155	0.029	0.261	5.273***
R = 0.478	**R^2 = 0.229**	**Adjusted R^2 = 0.212**	***F* = 14.072**	***p* = 0.000**

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The results indicate that the independent variables accounted for 22.9% of the variance in CC: HPS among administrative respondents. Distributive justice ($\beta = 0.261$, $p < 0.001$), supervisory support ($\beta = 0.154$, $p < 0.001$), education ($\beta = -0.153$, $p < 0.001$) and position tenure ($\beta = 0.148$, $p < 0.001$) made the strongest individual contribution in explaining continuance commitment.

Table 8.10 shows the common and different antecedent variables of CC: HPS among academic and administrative employees.

Table 8.10: Common antecedents of continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice)

Academic Employees	Dependent Variables	Administrative employees
Education (-) *Role overload* (-) *Job security* (+) *Distributive justice* (+) Age (+) Professional commitment (+) Task variety (-) Performance appraisal (+)	**Continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice)**	*Education* (-) *Role overload* (+) *Job security* (+) *Distributive justice* (+) Marital status (Married) Position tenure (+) University sector (Public) Role conflict (+) Supervisory support (+) Promotional opportunities (+)

Notes: Italicised variables indicate common variables for academic and administrative employees
Direction of the relationships indicated in parenthesis.

The results show that the common antecedent variables among academic and administrative employees were education, role overload, job security and distributive justice. Although role overload was a significant predictor for both academic and

administrative employees, these relationships were in contrasting directions. For academics, role overload was negatively correlated to continuance commitment (β = -0.098, p < 0.05), which suggests that the costs associated with leaving the university diminished significantly when they were overloaded. On the other hand, role overload was a positive predictor of continuance commitment for administrative employees (β = 0.084, p < 0.10), which suggests that the benefits of retaining membership in their universities outweighed the costs associated with role stress. This type of commitment is likely to be detrimental to the universities performance in the long run.

For academic employees, task variety was a negative predictor of continuance commitment, which suggests that academic employees who perform boring tasks choose to remain in their universities because of the investments they are likely to lose if they quit (i.e. job security, status, pension plans, disruption of family among others).

3a) Prediction of continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives) among academic employees

Table 8.11: Hierarchical multiple regression predicting continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives) among academic employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.175**	0.171**	0.171**	0.178**	0.139*
Gender (Male = 0)	0.056	0.053	0.053	0.051	0.021
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.041	0.041	0.041	0.055	0.066
Tenure (Job)	0.079	0.072	0.073	0.060	0.082
Tenure (Position)	-0.063	-0.053	-0.054	-0.065	-0.081
Education	-0.189***	-0.191***	-0.193***	-0.186***	-0.181***
University sector (Public = 0)	-0.078	-0.058	-0.059	-0.058	-0.125*
Role overload		0.044	0.044	0.008	0.016
Role conflict		0.090†	0.089†	0.098†	0.107*
Role ambiguity		-0.064	-0.067	-0.118*	-0.137*
Professional commitment			-0.009	0.014	0.029
Job autonomy				0.025	0.038
Feedback				0.038	-0.064
Task variety				-0.160**	-0.216***
Co-worker support				-0.076	-0.046
Supervisory support				0.001	-0.039
Job security					0.060
Promotion					-0.046
Training opportunities					-0.083
Pay satisfaction					0.006
Distributive justice					0.134†
Performance appraisal					0.104
Participation in decision making					0.119†
Career development					-0.036
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.064**	**0.075**	**0.075**	**0.101**	**0.145**
Adjusted R^2	**0.049**	**0.054**	**0.052**	**0.067**	**0.096**
R^2 Change	**0.064**	**0.011**	**0.000**	**0.025**	**0.044**
F (ANOVA)	**4.291****	**3.547****	**3.220****	**3.005****	**2.974****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The regression results in Table 8.11 indicate that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 14.5% of the variance in CC: LALT among academic employees. The R^2 Change values indicate that the strongest influence originated from demographic characteristics with age and education being the most significant predictors. Role conflict (Model 2) was positively correlated to continuance commitment. When job characteristics (Model 4) were added into the equation, role ambiguity became significant. This suggests that role ambiguity and task variety, both perceived as negative factors, were themselves negatively correlated so that workers

tended to experience either ambiguity or variety but not both. This is puzzling because it suggests that ambiguity does not result from variety as such.

Among the HRM practices (Model 5), distributive justice and participation in decision making were the only significant predictors of continuance commitment. The results also show that when HRM practices were added into the equation, university sector became significant. The negative beta coefficient ($\beta = -0.125$, $p < 0.05$) suggests that satisfaction with HRM practices pushed up the continuance commitment of academic employees from public universities especially when they had limited alternative jobs.

The results of Stepwise regression analysis are shown in Table 8.12 below.

Table 8.12: Stepwise regression analysis predicting continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives) among academic employees

	B	**Std. Error**	**Standardised Coefficients (β)**	**t**
(Constant)	10.281	1.241		8.282
Age	0.628	0.153	0.191	4.108***
Education	-0.493	0.145	-0.160	-3.404***
University sector (Public = 0)	-0.870	0.334	-0.130	-2.608**
Role conflict	0.147	0.057	0.124	2.557*
Role ambiguity	-0.091	0.047	-0.101	-1.947†
Task variety	-0.304	0.072	-0.214	-4.238***
Distributive justice	0.065	0.030	0.121	2.144*
Participation in decision making	0.065	0.039	0.099	1.680†
$R = 0.341$ $R^2 = 0.116$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.100$ $F = 7.196$ $p = 0.000$				

***$p < 0.001$; **$p < 0.01$; *$p < 0.05$; †$p < 0.10$

The results show that the independent variables accounted for 11.6% of the variance in CC: LALT among academics. The results show that the strongest individual predictors were task variety ($\beta = -0.214$, $p < 0.001$), age ($\beta = 0.191$, $p < 0.001$) and education ($\beta = -0.160$, $p < 0.001$), while participation in decision making contributed the least variance ($\beta = 0.099$, $p < 0.10$).

3b) Prediction of continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives) among administrative employees

Table 8.13: Hierarchical regression analysis predicting continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives) among administrative employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.044	0.058	0.062	0.061	0.069
Gender (Male = 0)	0.086†	0.086†	0.085†	0.079	0.062
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.058	0.060	0.061	0.059	0.070
Tenure (Job)	0.084	0.083	0.078	0.090	0.072
Tenure (Position)	-0.025	-0.015	-0.017	-0.017	0.002
Education	-0.066	-0.063	-0.060	-0.058	-0.086†
University sector (Public = 0)	-0.121*	-0.090†	-0.096†	-0.103*	-0.110*
Role overload		0.011	0.009	0.009	0.029
Role conflict		0.138**	0.141**	0.135**	0.143**
Role ambiguity		-0.015	-0.029	-0.031	-0.043
Professional commitment			-0.050	-0.051	-0.095†
Job autonomy				-0.029	-0.053
Feedback				-0.052	-0.044
Task variety				-0.032	-0.061
Co-worker support				0.023	0.001
Supervisory support				0.097†	0.058
Job security					0.174***
Promotion					0.045
Training opportunities					0.052
Pay satisfaction					0.018
Distributive justice					0.055
Performance appraisal					-0.107
Participation in decision making					-0.095
Career development					0.082
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.046**	**0.064**	**0.066**	**0.074**	**0.122**
Adjusted R^2	**0.032**	**0.044**	**0.044**	**0.042**	**0.077**
R^2 Change	**0.046**	**0.018**	**0.002**	**0.008**	**0.048**
F (ANOVA)	**3.279****	**3.229****	**3.040****	**2.343****	**2.677****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis in Table 8.13 show that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 12.2% of the variance in CC: LALT among administrative employees. The R^2 Change values indicate that the strongest influence was from demographic characteristics and HRM practices. Gender was the only demographic variable to significantly predict CC: LALT with female administrative employees perceiving that they have limited job alternatives as compared to their male colleagues. Contrary to the expectations of this study, role conflict (Model 2) was a positive predictor of CC: LALT, which suggests that the cost

associated with leaving the university in the face of limited job alternatives, outweighed the stress resulting from role conflict. Among the job characteristics (Model 4), supervisory support was the only significant predictor. Finally, job security ($\beta = 0.174$, $p < 0.001$) was the only HRM practice (Model 5) to significantly predict CC: LALT, which suggests that the cost associated with leaving the university increased for employees who were guaranteed job security.

The results of Stepwise regression analysis are in Table 8.14 below.

Table 8.14: Stepwise regression analysis predicting continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives) among administrative employees

	B	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficients**	**t**
(Constant)	7.994	1.166		6.856
Age	0.412	0.150	0.127	2.748**
Education	-0.247	0.121	-0.091	-2.045*
University sector (Public = 0)	-0.687	0.329	-0.102	-2.090*
Role conflict	0.157	0.050	0.143	3.104**
Professional commitment	-0.112	0.054	-0.097	-2.091*
Job security	0.138	0.035	0.185	3.923***
Participation in decision making	-0.101	0.036	-0.153	-2.846**
Career development	0.111	0.053	0.110	2.102*
$R = 0.312$ $R^2 = 0.098$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.082$ $F = 6.444$ $p = 0.000$				

****** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$***

The results indicate that the independent variables accounted for 9.8% of the variance in CC: LALT among administrative respondents. The beta coefficients show that job security ($\beta = 0.185$, $p < 0.001$), participation in decision making ($\beta = -0.153$, $p < 0.01$), role conflict ($\beta = 0.143$, $p < 0.01$) and age ($\beta = 0.127$, $p < 0.01$) made the strongest individual contribution in explaining 'low perceived alternatives' while education ($\beta = -0.091$, $p < 0.05$) contributed the least variance.

Table 8.15 shows the common and different antecedent variables of CC: LALT among academic and administrative employees.

Table 8.15: Antecedent variables of continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives)

Academic Employees	Dependent Variables	Administrative employees
Age (+) *Education* (-) *University sector (Public) (-)* *Role conflict* (+) *Participation in decision making* (+) Role ambiguity (-) Task variety (-) Distributive justice (+)	**Continuance commitment (low perceived alternatives)**	*Age* (+) *Education* (-) *University sector (Public) (-)* *Role conflict* (+) *Participation in decision making* (-) Professional commitment (-) Job security (+) Career development (+)

Notes: Italicised variables indicate common variables for academic and administrative employees
Direction of the relationships indicated in parenthesis.

The results show that age, education, university sector, role conflict and participation in decision making were common predictors of CC: LALT. The positive beta coefficient for role conflict suggests that employees who were stressed by incompatible role demands increased their commitment levels due to limited alternative job opportunities. Although participation in decision making was a significant predictor of continuance commitment for both academic and administrative employees, the relationships were in different directions. Among academic employees, participation in decision making was a positive predictor (β = 0.099, $p < 0.1$) which suggests that commitment levels for employees who were involved in decision making was high and vice versa. On the other hand, participation in decision making was a negative predictor among administrative employees (β = -0.153, $p < 0.01$) which suggests that employees who did not participate in the decision making process chose to remain in their universities due to limited alternative employment opportunities. Gelade, Dobson and Gilbert (2006) in a study of organisational commitment in four countries, suggested that continuance commitment would be high in less economically developed countries, where employees have limited choices in the job market and therefore forced to accept unfulfilling work conditions

4a) Prediction of normative commitment among academic employees

Table 8.16: Hierarchical multiple regression predicting normative commitment among academic employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.081	0.062	0.048	0.026	0.000
Gender (Male = 0)	-0.057	-0.028	-0.030	-0.027	-0.066†
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.032	0.045	0.019	0.007	0.024
Tenure (Job)	-0.030	-0.052	-0.098	-0.057	-0.023
Tenure (Position)	-0.115	-0.103†	-0.076	-0.064	-0.072
Education	-0.029	-0.012	0.032	0.019	0.004
University sector (Public = 0)	0.153***	0.148**	0.172****	0.144**	0.036
Role overload		-0.072	-0.076	-0.011	0.021
Role conflict		0.017	0.030	0.002	0.015
Role ambiguity		-0.274***	-0.195***	-0.101†	-0.088†
Professional commitment			0.291***	0.283***	0.262***
Job autonomy				-0.006	-0.037
Feedback				0.155**	0.005
Task variety				0.185***	0.067
Co-worker support				-0.090†	-0.067
Supervisory support				0.103†	0.062
Job security					0.137**
Promotion					0.093†
Training opportunities					-0.029
Pay satisfaction					0.032
Distributive justice					0.187**
Performance appraisal					0.032
Participation in decision making					0.135*
Career development					0.067
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.042**	**0.127**	**0.199**	**0.270**	**0.399**
Adjusted R^2	**0.027**	**0.107**	**0.179**	**0.243**	**0.365**
R^2 Change	**0.042**	**0.085**	**0.072**	**0.071**	**0.129**
F (ANOVA)	**2.737****	**6.312****	**9.808****	**9.929****	**11.655****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis in Table 8.16 show that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 39.9% of the variance in normative commitment among academic employees. The R^2 Change values indicate that role stressors and HRM practices were the most important groups of variables. With the exception of sector, none of the demographic variables (Model 1) significantly predicted normative commitment. The positive beta coefficients for university sector suggested that academics from private universities had higher levels of normative commitment than academics from public universities. Role ambiguity (Model 2) was the only role stressor to negatively influence normative commitment, which suggests

that employees loyalty and moral obligation to their universities diminished when they did not have clear information to perform their jobs. It was also noted that when role ambiguity was included in the regression equation, position tenure became significant. This suggests that employees, who had stagnated in the same position for a long time and experienced role ambiguity, lost their sense of loyalty and obligation to their universities. Professional commitment and job characteristics were significant predictors of normative commitment. In addition, when job characteristics were added into the regression equation, the estimated negative influence of role ambiguity on normative commitment significantly diminished. This suggests that role ambiguity was negatively correlated with the job characteristics, particularly, feedback, task variety and supervisory support, factors which might be expected to reduce ambiguity.

Finally, job security, promotional opportunities, distributive justice and participation in decision making (Model 5) were significant positive predictors of normative commitment. The results show that when HRM practices were added into the equation, the gender effect was altered. The negative beta coefficient (β = -0.066, $p < 0.10$) indicates that female academics had lower normative commitment than their male colleagues. This suggests that male academics enjoyed better HRM conditions or merely regard these conditions as being more satisfactory than their female colleagues, so that when these practices were excluded, gender became obscured.

The results of Stepwise regression analysis highlighting the most important variables to predict normative commitment among academic are shown in Table 8.17 below.

Table 8.17: Stepwise regression analysis predicting normative commitment among academic employees

	B	**Std. Error**	**Standardised Coefficients (β)**	**t**
(Constant)	2.074	1.481		1.401
Gender (Male = 0)	-0.772	0.424	-0.069	-1.820†
Tenure (Position)	-0.459	0.211	-0.086	-2.176*
Professional commitment	0.551	0.079	0.271	6.997***
Job security	0.202	0.052	0.165	3.861***
Promotional opportunities	0.188	0.074	0.115	2.547*
Distributive justice	0.212	0.045	0.225	4.739***
Participation in decision making	0.233	0.055	0.201	4.204***
R = 0.618	**R^2 = 0.382**	**Adjusted R^2 = 0.372**	***F* = 38.732**	***p* = 0.000**

***** *p* < 0.001; ** *p* < 0.01; * *p* < 0.05; † *p* < 0.10**

The results show that only seven independent variables accounted for 38.2% of the variance in normative commitment among academic staff respondents. The standardised beta coefficients show that professional commitment (β = 0.271, $p < 0.001$), distributive justice (β = 0.225, $p < 0.001$), participation in decision making (β = 0.201, $p < 0.001$) and job security (β = 0.165, $p < 0.001$) made the strongest individual contribution while gender (β = -0.069, $p < 0.1$) contributed the least variance.

4b) Prediction of normative commitment among administrative employees

Table 8.18: Hierarchical regression analysis predicting normative commitment among administrative employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.068	0.011	-0.004	0.000	0.008
Gender (Male = 0)	-0.009	0.011	0.015	0.046	0.046
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.043	0.057	0.052	0.044	0.059
Tenure (Job)	0.028	0.039	0.053	0.088	0.088
Tenure (Position)	-0.013	-0.015	-0.008	-0.025	0.031
Education	-0.071	-0.039	-0.047	-0.065	-0.102*
University sector (Public = 0)	0.157***	0.109*	0.131**	0.088†	0.018
Role overload		-0.064	-0.059	-0.017	0.007
Role conflict		0.026	0.017	0.004	0.033
Role ambiguity		-0.336***	-0.291***	-0.130*	-0.124*
Professional commitment			0.158***	0.123**	0.074†
Job autonomy				0.085†	0.008
Feedback				0.039	-0.036
Task variety				0.004	-0.013
Co-worker support				0.047	0.007
Supervisory support				0.247***	0.180***
Job security					0.055
Promotion					0.127**
Training opportunities					-0.003
Pay satisfaction					0.029
Distributive justice					0.087
Performance appraisal					0.023
Participation in decision making					-0.007
Career development					0.217***
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.031**	**0.145**	**0.168**	**0.245**	**0.337**
Adjusted R^2	**0.017**	**0.127**	**0.148**	**0.219**	**0.302**
R^2 Change	**0.031**	**0.115**	**0.022**	**0.078**	**0.092**
F (ANOVA)	**2.172****	**8.077****	**8.679****	**9.522****	**9.750****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis in Table 8.18 show that all the

independent variables of the study accounted for 33.7% of the variance in normative commitment among administrative employees. This means that the independent variables were stronger predictors of normative commitment among academic staff respondents than administrative staff respondents. The R^2 Change values suggest roughly that role stressors (above all, role ambiguity) and HRM practices accounted for the highest variance in normative commitment among administrative staff respondents. The positive beta coefficients for university sector (Model 1) suggest that administrators from private universities had higher levels of normative commitment than employees from public universities. Role ambiguity (Model 2) was the only role stressor to negatively influence normative commitment, which suggests that employees, who did not have clear information to enable them to perform their jobs effectively, became alienated from their jobs resulting in the loss of loyalty to their universities. Professional commitment (Model 3) and job characteristics (Model 4) were significant positive predictors of normative commitment. When job characteristics were added into the regression equation, the significance of university sector diminished considerably. This indicates that the higher level of normative commitment found in the private sector is explained by job characteristics, especially job autonomy and supportive supervision.

Finally, promotional opportunities and career development were the only significant HRM practices (Model 5). In addition, when HRM practices were included in the equation, the relationship between education and normative commitment became significant. The negative beta coefficient suggests that highly educated workers had less normative commitment but that this was obscured by the fact that HRM practices in respect of these workers were seen as relatively favourable.

The results of Stepwise regression analysis are shown in Table 8.19 below.

Table 8.19: Stepwise regression analysis predicting normative commitment among administrative employees

	B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
(Constant)	9.446	1.753		5.389
Tenure (Job)	0.459	0.156	0.115	2.946**
Education	-0.468	0.166	-0.108	-2.814**
Role Ambiguity	-0.141	0.057	-0.108	-2.465*
Professional commitment	0.137	0.074	0.075	1.857†
Supervisory support	0.218	0.052	0.186	4.147***
Promotional opportunities	0.199	0.069	0.139	2.865**
Distributive justice	0.096	0.041	0.109	2.342*
Career development	0.342	0.077	0.214	4.459***
R = 0.572	**R^2 = 0.327**	**Adjusted R^2 = 0.316**	***F* = 28.946**	***p* = 0.000**

***** *p* < 0.001; ** *p* < 0.01; * *p* < 0.05; † *p* < 0.10**

The results show that the independent variables contributed 32.7% of the variance in normative commitment among administrative staff respondents. Career development ($\beta = 0.214$, $p < 0.001$), supervisory support ($\beta = 0.186$, $p < 0.001$) and promotional opportunities ($\beta = 0.139$, $p < 0.01$) made the strongest individual contribution while professional commitment (($\beta = 0.075$, $p < 0.10$) contributed the least variance.

Table 8.20 present the summary of similar and different antecedent variables which predict normative commitment among academic and administrative employees.

Table 8.20: Antecedents of normative commitment

Academic Employees	Dependent Variables	Administrative employees
Professional commitment (+) *Promotional opportunities* (+) *Distributive justice* (+) Gender (Male) Position tenure (-) Job security (+) Participation in decision making (+)	**Normative commitment**	*Professional commitment* (+) *Promotional opportunities* (+) *Distributive justice* (+) Job tenure (+) Education (-) Role ambiguity (-) Supervisory support (+) Career development (+)

Notes: Italicised variables indicate common variables for academic and administrative employees
Direction of the relationships indicated in parenthesis.

5a) Prediction of overall organisational commitment among academic employees

Table 8.21: Hierarchical multiple regression predicting overall organisational commitment among academic employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.203***	0.185**	0.173**	0.151**	0.111*
Gender (Male = 0)	-0.024	0.006	0.004	0.010	-0.042
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.023	0.036	0.014	-0.001	0.022
Tenure (Job)	-0.033	-0.057	-0.096	-0.057	-0.022
Tenure (Position)	-0.103†	-0.092†	-0.069	-0.057	-0.063
Education	-0.107*	-0.089†	-0.052	-0.067	-0.080*
University sector (Public = 0)	0.145**	0.136**	0.155***	0.128**	-0.010
Role overload		-0.101*	-0.103*	-0.039	-0.006
Role conflict		0.013	0.024	-0.007	0.010
Role ambiguity		-0.272***	-0.205***	-0.103†	-0.100*
Professional commitment			0.244***	0.234***	0.219***
Job autonomy				0.051	0.029
Feedback				0.164***	-0.029
Task variety				0.155**	0.012
Co-worker support				-0.101†	-0.061
Supervisory support				0.084	0.025
Job security					0.129**
Promotion					0.072
Training opportunities					-0.015
Pay satisfaction					0.090
Distributive justice					0.221***
Performance appraisal					0.061
Participation in decision making					0.165**
Career development					0.040
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.063**	**0.155**	**0.206**	**0.277**	**0.454**
Adjusted R^2	**0.048**	**0.135**	**0.186**	**0.250**	**0.423**
R^2 Change	**0.063**	**0.092**	**0.051**	**0.072**	**0.177**
F (ANOVA)	**4.176****	**7.974****	**10.223****	**10.289****	**14.596****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicates that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 45.4% of the variance in overall organisational commitment among academic employees, with the strongest influence originating from HRM practices. The results show that age and sector (Model 1) were significant predictors of overall organisational commitment. Role overload and role ambiguity (Model 2) were significant negative predictors of organisational commitment. However, the inclusion of job characteristics into the equation minimised the negative impact of role stress. Job security, distributive justice and participation in decision making were the only HRM practices to significantly predict organisational

commitment. The positive beta coefficients suggests that employees who were assured of the security of their jobs, received fair rewards and participated in the decision making process were more committed to their universities.

The results of Stepwise regression analysis showing the most important predictors of overall organisational commitment among academics are shown in Table 8.22.

Table 8.22: Stepwise regression analysis predicting overall organisational commitment among academic employees

	B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
(Constant)	27.833	7.031		3.959
Age	1.207	0.542	0.086	2.225*
Education	-0.915	0.491	-0.069	-1.864†
Role Ambiguity	-0.376	0.157	-0.097	-2.404*
Professional commitment	1.089	0.191	0.220	5.713***
Job security	0.381	0.123	0.128	3.113**
Promotional opportunities	0.411	0.174	0.103	2.367*
Pay satisfaction	0.298	0.155	0.105	1.924†
Distributive justice	0.508	0.129	0.221	3.936***
Participation in decision making	0.537	0.134	0.190	4.020***
R = 0.666	**R^2 = 0.443**	**Adjusted R^2 = 0.432**	***F* = 38.535**	***p* = 0.000**

***** *p* < 0.001; ** *p* < 0.01; * *p* < 0.05; † *p* < 0.10**

The results show that the independent variables accounted for 44.3% of the variance in overall organisational commitment among academic staff respondents. Distributive justice ($\beta = 0.221$, $p < 0.001$), professional commitment ($\beta = 0.220$, $p < 0.001$), participation in decision making ($\beta = 0.190$, $p < 0.001$) and job security ($\beta = 0.128$, $p < 0.01$) made the strongest individual contributions in explaining overall organisational commitment while education ($\beta = -0.069$, $p < 0.1$) made the least contribution.

5b) Prediction of overall organisational commitment among administrative employees

Table 8.23: Hierarchical multiple regression predicting overall organisational commitment among administrative employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.135*	0.085	0.072	0.078	0.077
Gender (Male = 0)	0.029	0.049	0.052	0.095*	0.095*
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.050	0.062	0.058	0.052	0.071†
Tenure (Job)	0.019	0.030	0.041	0.080	0.070
Tenure (Position)	-0.010	-0.009	-0.004	-0.025	0.043
Education	-0.062	-0.033	-0.040	-0.065	-0.098*
University sector (Public = 0)	0.134**	0.098*	0.116*	0.072	-0.014
Role overload		-0.040	-0.036	0.014	0.052
Role conflict		0.054	0.047	0.036	0.079†
Role ambiguity		-0.309***	-0.272***	-0.072	-0.062
Professional commitment			0.132**	0.093*	0.043
Job autonomy				0.160**	0.066
Feedback				0.066	-0.019
Task variety				-0.023	-0.052
Co-worker support				0.065	0.024
Supervisory support				0.249***	0.163***
Job security					0.117**
Promotion					0.093†
Training opportunities					0.053
Pay satisfaction					0.022
Distributive justice					0.137*
Performance appraisal					0.034
Participation in decision making					0.024
Career development					0.170**
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.036**	**0.126**	**0.141**	**0.253**	**0.371**
Adjusted R^2	**0.022**	**0.107**	**0.121**	**0.228**	**0.338**
R^2 Change	**0.036**	**0.089**	**0.016**	**0.112**	**0.118**
F (ANOVA)	**2.562****	**6.825****	**7.087****	**9.936****	**11.339****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis in Table 8.23 indicate that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 37.1% of the variance in overall organisational commitment among administrative employees. This shows that the independent variables were stronger predictors of overall organisational commitment among academic staff respondents than administrative staff respondents. The R^2 Change values indicate that the strongest influence originated from job characteristics and HRM practices. Among the demographic characteristics, age, gender, marital status, education and sector were significant predictors of overall organisational commitment. Role ambiguity was the only role stressor (Model 2) which negatively

influenced organisational commitment. The negative effect of role ambiguity diminished significantly when job characteristics were included in the equation which suggests that role ambiguity arises when employees perform un-enriched jobs.

Job security, promotional opportunities, distributive justice and career development were the only HRM practices (Model 5) which significantly predicted overall organisational commitment. The positive beta coefficients suggest that employees who had secure employment, opportunities for advancement, fairly determined rewards and career development became more committed to their universities.

The results of Stepwise regression analysis are shown below in Table 8.24.

Table 8.24: Stepwise regression analysis predicting overall organisational commitment among administrative employees

	B	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficients**	**t**
(Constant)	16.745	5.082		3.295
Age	1.360	0.687	0.101	1.978*
Gender	1.853	0.932	0.078	1.989*
Marital status	1.997	1.147	0.071	1.741†
Tenure (Job)	0.902	0.513	0.087	1.759†
Education	-1.152	0.444	-0.102	-2.597**
Role conflict	0.390	0.181	0.086	2.154*
Role Ambiguity	-0.266	0.151	-0.078	-1.756†
Supervisory support	0.535	0.136	0.175	3.932***
Job security	0.391	0.134	0.126	2.928**
Promotional opportunities	0.468	0.187	0.126	2.504*
Distributive justice	0.341	0.108	0.147	3.149**
Career development	0.889	0.194	0.213	4.585***
R = 0.599	**R^2 = 0.359**	**Adjusted R^2 = 0.343**	***F* = 22.102**	***p* = 0.000**

***** *p* < 0.001; ** *p* < 0.01; * *p* < 0.05; † *p* < 0.10**

The results indicate that the independent variables accounted for 35.9% of the variance with career development ($\beta = 0.213$, $p < 0.001$), supervisory support ($\beta = 0.175$, $p < 0.001$), distributive justice ($\beta = 0.147$, $p < 0.01$) and job security ($\beta = 0.126$, $p < 0.01$) contributing the strongest individual variance while marital status contributed the least variance ($\beta = 0.071$, $p < 0.10$)

A summary of common and different antecedents of overall organisational commitment among academic and administrative employees are presented in Table

8.25 below.

Table 8.25: Antecedents of overall organisational commitment

Academic Employees	Dependent Variables	Administrative employees
Age (+) *Education* (-) *Role ambiguity* (-) *Job security* (+) *Promotional opportunities* (+) *Distributive justice* (+) Professional commitment (+) Pay satisfaction (+) Participation in decision making (+)	**Overall organisational commitment**	*Age* (+) *Education* (-) *Role ambiguity* (-) *Job security* (+) *Promotional opportunities* (+) *Distributive justice* (+) Gender (Female) Marital status (+) Job tenure (+) Role conflict (+) Supervisory support (+) Career development (+)

Notes: Italicised variables indicate common variables for academic and administrative employees
Directions of the relationships are indicated in parenthesis.

As shown in Table 8.25, the common antecedents of overall organisational commitment consisted of demographic characteristics, role stressor and HRM practices, but none of the job characteristics. Consistent with the literature, age (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Steers, 1977; Allen and Meyer, 1984; Meyer and Allen, 1991), education (Mowday *et al*., 1982; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990), role ambiguity (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Dixon *et al*., 2005), job security (Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Pfeffer, 1998; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; McElroy, 2001), promotional opportunities (Schwarzwald *et al*., 1992; Iles *et al*., 1990; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999) and organisational justice (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Sweeney and McFarlin, 1993) were significant predictors of organisational commitment.

8.2.2 The influence of independent variables on job satisfaction among academic and administrative employees.

1a) Prediction of extrinsic job satisfaction among academic employees

Table 8.26: Hierarchical multiple regression predicting extrinsic job satisfaction among academic employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.142*	0.126*	0.121*	0.096*	0.056
Gender (Male = 0)	0.001	0.045	0.044	0.060†	0.008
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.018	0.031	0.023	0.001	0.021
Tenure (Job)	-0.033	-0.063	-0.079	-0.007	0.031
Tenure (Position)	-0.044	-0.037	-0.028	-0.009	-0.010
Education	-0.080	-0.051	-0.037	-0.041	-0.054†
University sector (Public = 0)	0.251***	0.216***	0.224***	0.176***	0.043
Role overload		-0.243***	-0.244***	-0.133***	-0.108***
Role conflict		-0.011	-0.007	-0.048	-0.031
Role ambiguity		-0.301***	-0.274***	-0.036	-0.037
Professional commitment			0.097*	0.071†	0.060*
Job autonomy				0.070	0.048
Feedback				0.309***	0.127***
Task variety				0.176***	0.046
Co-worker support				0.024	0.073*
Supervisory support				0.191***	0.142***
Job security					0.102**
Promotion					0.082*
Training opportunities					0.045
Pay satisfaction					0.138**
Distributive justice					0.203***
Performance appraisal					0.022
Participation in decision making					0.164***
Career development					-0.058
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.089**	**0.275**	**0.284**	**0.531**	**0.689**
Adjusted R^2	**0.075**	**0.259**	**0.265**	**0.514**	**0.671**
R^2 Change	**0.089**	**0.186**	**0.008**	**0.248**	**0.158**
F (ANOVA)	**6.137****	**16.540****	**15.617****	**30.374****	**38.833****

****** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$***

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis in Table 8.26 indicates that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 68.9% of the variance in extrinsic job satisfaction among academic employees. The R^2 Change values indicate that the strongest influence originated from job characteristics. The results show that age and sector were the only demographic variables which positively predicted extrinsic job satisfaction. Role ambiguity and role overload (Model 2) were significant negative predictors of extrinsic job satisfaction, which suggests that employees who had heavy

work load and performed ambiguous tasks became dissatisfied with the extrinsic aspects of their jobs. However, when job characteristics were included in the equation, the negative relationship between role ambiguity and extrinsic job satisfaction became non-significant which shows that role ambiguity and job characteristics were negatively correlated.

Among the HRM practices, job security, promotional opportunities, pay, distributive justice and participation in decision making (Model 5) were significant positive predictors of extrinsic job satisfaction. When HRM practices were added into the regression equation, age became non-significant while education became significant. The negative beta coefficient for education suggests that academics with lower levels of education were more satisfied with the extrinsic aspects of their jobs when their less advantageous positions were taken into account.

The results of Stepwise regression analysis showing predictors of extrinsic job satisfaction among academic staff respondents are in Table 8.27 below.

Table 8.27: Stepwise regression analysis predicting extrinsic job satisfaction among academic employees

	B	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficients**	**t**
(Constant)	5.358	1.515		3.537
Age	0.451	0.175	0.075	2.580**
Education	-0.282	0.159	-0.051	-1.772†
Role overload	-0.201	0.044	-0.130	-4.522***
Professional commitment	0.138	0.062	0.066	2.241*
Job autonomy	0.106	0.047	0.077	2.277*
Feedback	0.235	0.064	0.129	3.691***
Co-worker support	0.162	0.070	0.081	2.327*
Supervisory support	0.212	0.048	0.155	4.409***
Job security	0.135	0.040	0.107	3.340***
Promotional opportunities	0.146	0.056	0.087	2.615**
Pay satisfaction	0.182	0.050	0.151	3.630***
Distributive justice	0.194	0.042	0.199	4.620***
Participation in decision making	0.215	0.045	0.180	4.836***
R = 0.826 **R^2 = 0.682** **Adjusted R^2 = 0.672** ***F* = 71.142** ***p* = 0.000**				

****** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05; † p < 0.10***

The results show that the independent variables accounted for 68.2% of the variance in extrinsic job satisfaction among academic staff respondents. The beta coefficients

show that distributive justice (β = 0.199, $p < 0.001$), participation in decision making (β = 0.180, $p < 0.001$), supervisory support (β = 0.155, $p < 0.001$), pay (β = 0.151, $p < 0.001$) and role overload (β = -0.130, $p < 0.001$) contributed the highest individual variance in explaining extrinsic job satisfaction while education contributed the least variance (β = -0.051, $p < 0.10$).

1b) Prediction of extrinsic job satisfaction among administrative employees

Table 8.28: Hierarchical multiple regression predicting extrinsic job satisfaction among administrative employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.163**	0.113*	0.099†	0.110*	0.078†
Gender (Male = 0)	-0.074	-0.072†	-0.068	-0.005	0.009
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	-0.061	-0.041	-0.045	-0.048	-0.028
Tenure (job)	-0.012	-0.014	-0.001	0.024	0.017
Tenure (position)	-0.079	-0.094†	-0.088†	-0.112*	-0.026
Education	0.045	0.076†	0.069	0.034	0.018
University sector (Public = 0)	0.230***	0.141***	0.162***	0.108**	0.003
Role overload		-0.224***	-0.219***	-0.153***	-0.112***
Role conflict		-0.119**	-0.127**	-0.142***	-0.084*
Role ambiguity		-0.274***	-0.232***	0.028	0.041
Professional commitment			0.149***	0.087*	0.069*
Job autonomy				0.201***	0.107**
Feedback				0.121*	0.023
Task variety				0.100*	0.077*
Co-worker support				0.074†	0.043
Supervisory support				0.179***	0.095*
Job security					0.042
Promotion					0.051
Training opportunities					0.086†
Pay satisfaction					-0.060
Distributive justice					0.204***
Performance appraisal					0.093†
Participation in decision making					0.073
Career development					0.041
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.078**	**0.268**	**0.287**	**0.436**	**0.563**
Adjusted R^2	**0.064**	**0.252**	**0.271**	**0.417**	**0.540**
R^2 Change	**0.078**	**0.190**	**0.020**	**0.149**	**0.129**
F (ANOVA)	**5.760****	**17.347****	**17.372****	**22.673****	**24.714****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis in Table 8.28 indicate that the independent variables accounted for 56.3% of the variance in extrinsic job satisfaction among administrative employees. This shows that the independent variables were

stronger predictors of extrinsic job satisfaction among academic than administrative employees. The R^2 Change values indicate that the strongest influence originated from role stressors. Age and sector were significant positive predictors of extrinsic job satisfaction while role stressors (Model 2) were significant negative predictors. When role stressors were included, females showed up as having significantly lower extrinsic job satisfaction than males, suggesting that female employees experienced more role stress. Role ambiguity appears to be closely related to unsatisfactory job characteristics since, when job characteristics were included, role ambiguity ceased to be significant.

Training opportunities, distributive justice and performance appraisals were the only HRM practices (Model 5) which were significant positive predictors of extrinsic job satisfaction. When HRM practices were added into the regression equation, university sector became non-significant which suggests that the better results obtained by the private sector universities were accounted for by differences across sectors in the independent variables.

The results of Stepwise regression analysis are in Table 8.29 below.

Table 8.29: Stepwise regression analysis predicting extrinsic job satisfaction among administrative employees

	B	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficients**	**t**
(Constant)	15.539	2.003		7.758
Role overload	-0.176	0.053	-0.109	-3.291***
Role conflict	-0.168	0.063	-0.089	-2.665**
Professional commitment	0.170	0.065	0.086	2.617**
Job autonomy	0.188	0.049	0.142	3.812***
Task variety	0.213	0.098	0.079	2.183*
Supervisory support	0.142	0.047	0.112	3.021**
Training opportunities	0.153	0.047	0.125	3.228***
Pay satisfaction	0.128	0.055	0.098	2.324*
Distributive justice	0.233	0.044	0.243	5.333***
Performance appraisal	0.210	0.073	0.125	2.886**
$R = 0.742$ **$R^2 = 0.550$** **Adjusted $R^2 = 0.540$** **$F = 58.042$** **$p = 0.000$**				

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The Stepwise regression analysis showed that ten independent variables accounted for 55% of the variance in extrinsic job satisfaction among administrative employees' respondents. The beta coefficients show that distributive justice (β = 0.243,

$p < 0.001$), job autonomy ($\beta = 0.142$, $p < 0.001$), training opportunities ($\beta = 0.125$, $p < 0.001$) and role overload ($\beta = -0.109$, $p < 0.001$) contributed the highest individual variance while task variety ($\beta = 0.079$, $p < 0.05$) contributed the least variance.

Table 8.30 below shows a summary of common and different independent variables which were antecedents of extrinsic job satisfaction among academic and administrative employees.

Table 8.30: Antecedents of extrinsic job satisfaction

Academic Employees	**Dependent Variables**	**Administrative employees**
Role overload (-) *Professional commitment* (+) *Job autonomy* (+) *Supervisory support* (+) *Pay satisfaction* (+) *Distributive justice* (+) Age (+) Education (-) Feedback (+) Co-worker support (+) Job security (+) Promotional opportunities (+) Participation in decision making (+)	**Extrinsic job satisfaction**	*Role overload* (-) *Professional commitment* (+) *Job autonomy* (+) *Supervisory support* (+) *Pay satisfaction* (+) *Distributive justice* (+) Role conflict (-) Task variety (+) Training opportunities (+) Performance appraisal (+)

Notes: Italicised variables indicate common variables for academic and administrative employees
Directions of the relationships are indicated in parenthesis.

The results show that role stress, job characteristics and HRM practices were significant predictors of extrinsic job satisfaction. It is interesting to note the difference in directions of the relationships between role stressors and organisational commitment and role stressors with job satisfaction. In the previous section, the results had shown that role overload and role conflict were positive predictors of continuance commitment, implying that employees' investments in their universities outweighed the stress they experienced from their jobs. But now the results show that role overload and role conflict were negative predictors of extrinsic job satisfaction. A possible explanation for these differences is that role stressors are likely to have a more direct negative impact on employees' jobs than on their commitment to their universities.

2a) Prediction of intrinsic job satisfaction among academic employees

Table 8.31: Hierarchical multiple regression predicting intrinsic job satisfaction among academic employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.131*	0.115**	0.106*	0.081*	0.057†
Gender (Male = 0)	-0.019	0.029	0.027	0.049	0.006
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.044	0.059	0.043	0.007	0.029
Tenure (Job)	-0.035	-0.067	-0.097	-0.036	-0.018
Tenure (Position)	-0.147**	-0.140**	-0.123*	-0.097*	-0.067*
Education	-0.115*	-0.083†	-0.054	-0.062†	-0.072*
University sector (Public = 0)	0.174***	0.132**	0.147***	0.106**	-0.003
Role overload		-0.282***	-0.285***	-0.167***	-0.146***
Role conflict		-0.020	-0.011	-0.057	-0.042
Role ambiguity		-0.318***	-0.268***	0.011	0.032
Professional commitment			0.186***	0.139***	0.116***
Job autonomy				0.205***	0.199***
Feedback				0.245***	0.059†
Task variety				0.160***	0.032
Co-worker support				0.076†	0.111***
Supervisory support				0.147***	0.081*
Job security					-0.004
Promotion					0.100**
Training opportunities					0.104**
Pay satisfaction					0.182***
Distributive justice					0.030
Performance appraisal					0.087*
Participation in decision making					0.117**
Career development					0.084*
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.072**	**0.302**	**0.332**	**0.589**	**0.735**
Adjusted R^2	**0.057**	**0.286**	**0.315**	**0.573**	**0.720**
R^2 Change	**0.072**	**0.230**	**0.030**	**0.257**	**0.147**
F (ANOVA)	**4.876****	**18.839****	**19.601****	**38.346****	**48.778****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The regression results in Table 8.31 indicate that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 73.5% of the variance in intrinsic job satisfaction among academic staff respondents. The R^2 Change values indicate that role stressors, job characteristics and HRM practices were the most important groups of independent variables in influencing intrinsic job satisfaction. Age, position tenure and education were the only demographic variables which significantly predicted intrinsic job satisfaction. The results also show that university sector was a positive predictor with academics from private universities being more satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their jobs than academics from public universities. But this effect disappears when

HRM practices are included in the equation so that the superiority of the private sector seems to be accounted for by its better HRM practices. Role ambiguity and role overload (Model 2) were significant negative predictors of intrinsic job satisfaction while professional commitment (Model 3) was a significant positive predictor. Job characteristics (Model 4) were significant positive predictors of intrinsic job satisfaction, however, when these variables were added into the equation, role ambiguity ceased to be significant suggesting that role ambiguity was experienced when these characteristics were seen as unsatisfactory. Promotional opportunities, training, pay, performance appraisals, participation in decision making and career development (Model 5) were significant predictors of intrinsic job satisfaction.

The results of Stepwise regression analysis are presented in Table 8.32 below.

Table 8.32: Stepwise regression analysis predicting intrinsic job satisfaction among academic employees

	B	**Std. Error**	**Standardised Coefficients**	**t**
(Constant)	10.198	1.722		5.924
Age	0.317	0.179	0.053	1.773†
Tenure (Position)	-0.362	0.159	-0.066	-2.275*
Education	-0.396	0.147	-0.071	-2.694**
Role overload	-0.250	0.041	-0.163	-6.159***
Professional commitment	0.232	0.057	0.111	4.091***
Job autonomy	0.298	0.041	0.217	7.293***
Co-worker support	0.239	0.064	0.120	3.755***
Supervisory support	0.124	0.045	0.091	2.761**
Promotional opportunities	0.169	0.054	0.101	3.133**
Training opportunities	0.138	0.046	0.103	3.029**
Pay satisfaction	0.252	0.038	0.211	6.650***
Performance appraisal	0.196	0.067	0.107	2.924**
Participation in decision making	0.157	0.042	0.132	3.705***
Career development	0.153	0.065	0.080	2.339*
$R = 0.855$ **$R^2 = 0.731$** **Adjusted $R^2 = 0.722$** **$F = 83.542$** **$p = 0.000$**				

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The Stepwise regression results show that the independent variables accounted for 73.1% of the variance in intrinsic job satisfaction among academic staff respondents, with job autonomy ($\beta = 0.217$, $p < 0.001$), pay ($\beta = 0.211$, $p < 0.001$), role overload ($\beta = -0.163$, $p < 0.001$) and participation in decision making ($\beta = 0.132$, $p < 0.001$) contributing the strongest individual variance and age ($\beta = 0.053$, $p < 0.1$) contributing the least variance among the included variables.

2b) Prediction of intrinsic job satisfaction among administrative employees

Table 8.33 Hierarchical multiple regression predicting intrinsic job satisfaction among administrative employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	0.166**	0.106*	0.088†	0.105*	0.087*
Gender (Male = 0)	-0.103*	-0.093*	-0.088*	-0.005	0.006
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.000	0.021	0.016	0.011	0.026
Tenure (Job)	-0.015	-0.011	0.004	0.027	0.028
Tenure (Position)	-0.099†	-0.111*	-0.104*	-0.133***	-0.074*
Education	0.043	0.079†	0.070†	0.026	0.009
University sector (Public = 0)	0.245***	0.159***	0.184***	0.117***	0.040
Role overload		-0.191***	-0.185***	-0.098**	-0.074*
Role conflict		-0.075†	-0.085*	-0.101**	-0.065*
Role ambiguity		-0.342***	-0.291***	0.048	0.057
Professional commitment			0.181***	0.099**	0.082**
Job autonomy				0.250***	0.183***
Feedback				0.208***	0.134***
Task variety				0.182***	0.172***
Co-worker support				0.067†	0.042
Supervisory support				0.163***	0.110**
Job security					-0.017
Promotion					0.056
Training opportunities					0.022
Pay satisfaction					0.045
Distributive justice					0.127**
Performance appraisal					0.059
Participation in decision making					0.063
Career development					0.091*
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.091**	**0.290**	**0.320**	**0.569**	**0.634**
Adjusted R^2	**0.078**	**0.275**	**0.304**	**0.554**	**0.615**
R^2 Change	**0.091**	**0.199**	**0.029**	**0.249**	**0.065**
F (ANOVA)	**6.853****	**19.439****	**20.254****	**38.654****	**33.257****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The regression results in Table 8.33 indicate that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 63.4% of the variance in intrinsic job satisfaction among administrative staff respondents. This shows that the independent variables were stronger predictors of intrinsic job satisfaction among academics than administrative employees. The R^2 Change values indicate that the most important groups of independent variables were role stressors and job characteristics. Age, gender and position tenure were significant predictors of intrinsic job satisfaction. The negative beta coefficient for gender shows that female employees were less satisfied with the

intrinsic aspects of their jobs than their male colleagues but this effect vanished when job characteristics were included so that the higher intrinsic satisfaction among men may have been accounted for by their perception of better job characteristics. University sector was a significant predictor of intrinsic job satisfaction with administrative employees from private universities being more satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their jobs than administrators from public universities. The fact that this effect vanishes when HRM practices were included indicates again that superior HRM practices lie behind the private sector's advantages.

Role stressors were significant negative predictors while professional commitment and job characteristics were positive predictors. Distributive justice and career development were the only HRM practices which had significant positive influence on intrinsic job satisfaction which suggests that employees who were treated fairly and had the opportunity for career development became satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their jobs.

The results of stepwise regression analysis are presented in Table 8.34 below.

Table 8.34: Stepwise regression analysis predicting intrinsic job satisfaction among administrative employees

	B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t
(Constant)	2.750	1.500		1.833
Age	0.613	0.203	0.099	3.019**
Tenure (Position)	-0.407	0.196	-0.068	-2.073*
Role overload	-0.134	0.054	-0.075	-2.465*
Role conflict	-0.134	0.065	-0.064	-2.060*
Professional commitment	0.155	0.067	0.071	2.327*
Job autonomy	0.251	0.052	0.173	4.782***
Feedback	0.228	0.066	0.135	3.465***
Task variety	0.498	0.099	0.169	5.028***
Supervisory support	0.157	0.050	0.112	3.145**
Promotional opportunities	0.122	0.064	0.072	1.915†
Distributive justice	0.171	0.040	0.162	4.245***
Participation in decision making	0.124	0.048	0.099	2.579**
Career development	0.210	0.070	0.110	2.985**
R = 0.791	**R^2 = 0.626**	**Adjusted R^2 = 0.616**	***F* = 60.894**	***p* = 0.000**

***** *p* < 0.001; ** *p* < 0.01; * *p* < 0.05; † *p* < 0.10**

The results show that the independent variables accounted for 62.6% (R^2 = 0.626) of the variance in intrinsic job satisfaction. The beta coefficients show that job autonomy

($\beta = 0.173$, $p < 0.001$), task variety ($\beta = 0.169$, $p < 0.001$), distributive justice ($\beta = 0.162$, $p < 0.001$) and feedback ($\beta = 0.135$, $p < 0.001$) contributed the highest individual variance while promotional opportunities contributed the least variance ($\beta = 0.072$, $p < 0.1$).

The predictors of intrinsic job satisfaction among academic and administrative employees are shown in Table 8.35 below.

Table 8.35: Common antecedents of intrinsic job satisfaction

Academic Employees	**Dependent Variables**	**Administrative employees**
Age (+) *Position tenure* (-) *Role overload* (-) *Professional commitment* (+) *Job autonomy* (+) *Supervisory support* (+) *Promotional opportunities* (+) *Participation in decision making* (+) *Career development* (+) Education (-) Co-worker support (+) Training opportunities (+) Pay satisfaction (+) Performance appraisal (+)	**Intrinsic job satisfaction**	*Age* (+) *Position tenure* (-) *Role overload* (-) *Professional commitment* (+) *Job autonomy* (+) *Supervisory support* (+) *Promotional opportunities* (+) *Participation in decision making* (+) *Career development* (+) Role conflict (-) Feedback (+) Task variety (+) Distributive justice (+)

Notes: Italicised variables indicate common variables for academic and administrative employees
Directions of the relationships are indicated in parenthesis.

The results show that older employees and employees who have been in the same position for a short time were more satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their jobs than younger employees and those who have stagnated in the same position for a long time. Role overload was a negative predictor of intrinsic job satisfaction which suggests that academic and administrative employees with heavy workload became dissatisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their jobs. The results also show that intrinsic job satisfaction was high for employees who were committed to their professions, had job autonomy, received support from their supervisors, had adequate promotional opportunities, participated in the decision making process and had opportunities for career development.

The regression results for overall job satisfaction were suppressed since the results were similar to intrinsic job satisfaction.

8.2.3 The influence of independent variables on turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees

a) Prediction of turnover intentions among academic employees

Table 8.36: Hierarchical multiple regression predicting turnover intentions among academic employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	-0.211***	-0.191***	-0.180***	-0.154**	-0.126**
Gender (Male = 0)	0.045	0.002	0.004	-0.004	0.033
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.035	0.018	0.038	0.059	0.046
Tenure (Job)	0.113†	0.136*	0.172***	0.120*	0.094†
Tenure (Position)	0.031	0.028	0.007	-0.012	-0.020
Education	0.087†	0.062	0.028	0.043	0.056
University sector (Public = 0)	0.052	0.085†	0.067	0.101*	0.209***
Role overload		0.166***	0.169***	0.080†	0.062
Role conflict		0.083†	0.073	0.109**	0.092**
Role ambiguity		0.283***	0.221***	0.071	0.076
Professional commitment			-0.228***	-0.208***	-0.191***
Job autonomy				-0.046	-0.031
Feedback				-0.187***	-0.067
Task variety				-0.221***	-0.108*
Co-worker support				0.070	0.033
Supervisory support				-0.127*	-0.105*
Job security					-0.072†
Promotion					-0.091†
Training opportunities					0.012
Pay satisfaction					-0.205***
Distributive justice					-0.091
Performance appraisal					0.090
Participation in decision making					-0.164**
Career development					-0.012
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.033**	**0.194**	**0.239**	**0.363**	**0.473**
Adjusted R^2	**0.018**	**0.176**	**0.219**	**0.339**	**0.443**
R^2 Change	**0.033**	**0.161**	**0.044**	**0.124**	**0.110**
F (ANOVA)	**2.148****	**10.490****	**12.375****	**15.271****	**15.725****

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The regression results in Table 8.36 indicate that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 47.3% of the variance in turnover intentions among academic staff respondents. The R^2 Change values indicate that role stressors and job characteristics accounted for the highest variance in predicting turnover intentions. Age and job tenure were the only demographic variables which significantly predicted turnover intentions. Role stressors (Model 2) were significant positive predictors

while professional commitment (Model 3) was a negative predictor. When role stressors were introduced into the equation, university sector became significant – with employees from public universities displaying higher turnover intentions. The analysis shows that job security, promotional opportunities, pay and participation in decision making (Model 5) were significant negative predictors of turnover intentions.

The results of stepwise regression analysis are in Table 8.37 below.

Table 8.37: Stepwise regression analysis predicting turnover intentions among academic employees

	B	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficients**	**T**
(Constant)	9.145	2.040		4.483
Age	-0.462	0.180	-0.115	-2.569*
Tenure (Job)	0.323	0.154	0.099	2.101*
University sector (Public = 0)	1.646	0.331	0.202	4.966***
Role overload	0.082	0.042	0.079	1.950†
Role conflict	0.128	0.059	0.089	2.178*
Role Ambiguity	0.096	0.049	0.088	1.976*
Professional commitment	-0.274	0.054	-0.194	-5.066***
Task variety	-0.182	0.074	-0.105	-2.456*
Supervisory support	-0.090	0.037	-0.098	-2.438*
Job security	-0.069	0.035	-0.081	-1.947†
Promotional opportunities	-0.092	0.050	-0.082	-1.854†
Pay satisfaction	-0.199	0.037	-0.247	-5.447***
Participation in decision making	-0.139	0.038	-0.173	-3.662***
R = 0.677	**R^2 = 0.458**	**Adjusted R^2 = 0.442**	***F* = 28.079**	***p* = 0.000**

***** *p* < 0.001; ** *p* < 0.01; * *p* < 0.05; † *p* < 0.10**

The Stepwise regression results show that the independent variables accounted for 45.8% of the variance in turnover with pay satisfaction (β = -0.247, $p < 0.001$), professional commitment (β = -0.194, $p < 0.001$) and participation in decision making (β = -0.173, $p < 0.001$) making the strongest individual contribution in explaining turnover intentions among academic employees. The positive beta coefficient for sector (β = 0.202, $p < 0.001$) suggests that academics from private universities were more likely to turnover than academics from private universities.

b) Prediction of turnover intentions among administrative employees

Table 8.38: Hierarchical multiple regression predicting turnover intentions among administrative employees

Variables: Demographic characteristics, Role stressors, Professional commitment, Job characteristics and HRM practices	**Model 1 (β)**	**Model 2 (β)**	**Model 3 (β)**	**Model 4 (β)**	**Model 5 (β)**
Age	-0.329***	-0.291***	-0.275***	-0.283***	-0.278***
Gender (Male = 0)	-0.021	-0.027	-0.031	-0.066	-0.070
Marital status (Unmarried = 0)	0.042	0.031	0.036	0.035	0.030
Tenure (Job)	0.037	0.035	0.021	0.008	-0.002
Tenure (Position)	0.137*	0.148**	0.141**	0.153**	0.093†
Education	0.107*	0.088†	0.096*	0.115**	0.129**
University sector (Public = 0)	-0.054	0.005	-0.017	0.014	0.072
Role overload		0.108*	0.102*	0.064	0.042
Role conflict		0.094*	0.102*	0.116*	0.080†
Role ambiguity		0.185***	0.140**	-0.010	-0.026
Professional commitment			-0.158***	-0.114**	-0.096*
Job autonomy				-0.089†	-0.014
Feedback				-0.024	0.046
Task variety				-0.065	-0.059
Co-worker support				-0.112*	-0.077†
Supervisory support				-0.114*	-0.051
Job security					-0.047
Promotion					-0.123*
Training opportunities					0.051
Pay satisfaction					0.035
Distributive justice					-0.145*
Performance appraisal					-0.088
Participation in decision making					-0.026
Career development					-0.121*
Regression model summary					
R^2	**0.071**	**0.146**	**0.168**	**0.219**	**0.290**
Adjusted R^2	**0.057**	**0.128**	**0.149**	**0.192**	**0.253**
R^2 Change	**0.071**	**0.075**	**0.022**	**0.051**	**0.072**
F (ANOVA)	**5.217****	**8.110****	**8.710****	**8.209****	**7.858****

****** $p < 0.001$; *** $p < 0.01$; ** $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The regression results in Table 8.38 indicate that all the independent variables of the study accounted for 29% of the variance in turnover intentions among administrative staff respondents. This shows that the independent variables were stronger predictors of turnover intentions among academic than administrative employees. The R^2 Change values indicate that demographic characteristics, role stressors and HRM practices accounted for the highest variance in predicting turnover intentions. The positive effects of role stressors on turnover intentions diminished when job characteristics were introduced into the equation, which suggests that role ambiguity and role overload had a close inverse relationship with job characteristics. Among the

HRM practices, promotional opportunities, distributive justice and career development made significant negative prediction of turnover intentions, which suggests that employees who were satisfied with their promotional opportunities, organisational fairness and their chances for career development were less likely to quit their universities.

Table 8.39 below presents the results of Stepwise regression analysis showing the predictors of turnover intentions among administrative staff respondents.

Table 8.39: Stepwise regression analysis predicting turnover intentions among administrative employees

	B	**Std. Error**	**Standardized Coefficients**	**T**
(Constant)	15.995	1.123		14.240
Age	-0.827	0.157	-0.217	-5.272***
Education	0.413	0.128	0.129	3.215***
Role conflict	0.095	0.053	0.074	1.798†
Professional commitment	-0.145	0.057	-0.108	-2.553*
Co-worker support	-0.122	0.054	-0.095	-2.249*
Promotional opportunities	-0.154	0.052	-0.147	-2.975**
Distributive justice	-0.128	0.032	-0.197	-3.998***
Career development	-0.129	0.059	-0.110	-2.195*
R = 0.515	**R^2 = 0.265**	**Adjusted R^2 = 0.253**	***F* = 21.495**	***p* = 0.000**

***** *p* < 0.001; ** *p* < 0.01; * *p* < 0.05; † *p* < 0.10**

The Stepwise regression analysis show that the independent variables accounted for 26.5% of the variance in turnover intentions among administrative staff respondents. The beta coefficients show that age (β = -0.217, $p < 0.001$), distributive justice (β = -0.197, $p < 0.001$), promotional opportunities (β = -0.147, $p < 0.01$) and education (β = 0.129, $p < 0.001$) made the strongest individual contributions in explaining turnover intentions while role conflict (β = 0.074, $p < 0.1$) contributed the least variance.

Table 8.40 show similar and different variables which are significant predictors of turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees.

Table 8.40: Antecedents of turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees

Academic Employees	Dependent Variables	Administrative employees
Age (-) *Role conflict* (+) *Professional commitment* (-) *Promotional opportunities* (-) Job tenure (+) University sector (Public) (+) Role overload (+) Role ambiguity (+) Task variety (-) Supervisory support (-) Job security (-) Pay satisfaction (-) Participation in decision making (-)	**Turnover intentions**	*Age* (-) *Role conflict* (+) *Professional commitment* (-) *Promotional opportunities* (-) Education (+) Co-worker support (-) Distributive justice (-) Career development (-)

Notes: Italicised variables indicate common variables for academic and administrative employees
Directions of the relationships are indicated in parenthesis.

The common antecedents of turnover intentions for academic and administrative employees are age, role conflict, professional commitment and promotional opportunities. The results show that older employees were less likely to quit their jobs as compared to younger employees (Mowday *et al*., 1982; Parasuraman and Nachman, 1987; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990), while employees who were committed to their professions and who had opportunities for advancements were also less likely to turnover. On the other hand, the positive beta coefficient for role conflict indicates that employees who experienced high levels of role conflict were more likely to quit their jobs than employees who experienced lower levels of role conflict.

8.3 The effects of organisational commitment and job satisfaction on turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees

Hypothesis 9 examines the influence of organisational commitment and job satisfaction on turnover intentions. Pearson correlation analysis and Stepwise regression analysis was carried out to determine the extent to which each of the dimensions of organisational commitment and job satisfaction influenced turnover intentions among employees in Kenyan universities. The results are presented below.

Table 8.41: Correlations among organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions

Variables	Affective Commitment	Continuance commitment (High personal Sacrifice	Continuance commitment (low job alternative)	Normative commitment	Extrinsic job satisfaction	Intrinsic job satisfaction
Affective Commitment	**1.000**	0.416**	0.046ns	0.649**	0.542**	0.517**
Continuance commitment (high personal Sacrifice)	0.416**	**1.000**	0.505**	0.474**	0.260**	0.238**
Continuance commitment (low job alternative)	0.046ns	0.505**	**1.000**	0.131**	0.009ns	-0.052ns
Normative commitment	0.649**	0.474**	0.131**	**1.000**	0.452**	0.405**
Extrinsic job satisfaction	0.542**	0.260**	0.009ns	0.452**	**1.000**	0.785**
Intrinsic job satisfaction	0.517**	0.238**	-0.052ns	0.405**	0.785**	**1.000**
Turnover intentions	-0.552**	-0.352**	-0.061ns	-0.456**	-0.461**	-0.461**

**** Correlation matrix significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed test); ns – not significant**

The correlation matrix in Table 8.41 indicates that (a) intention to leave the university was strongly influenced by affective commitment, intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and normative commitment; b) the sub-dimensions of continuance commitment correlated differently with turnover intention. Whereas 'high personal sacrifice' had a negative moderate correlation, r = -0.352, $p < 0.01$; 'low perceived alternatives' had a negative non-significant relationship, r = -0.061, $p > 0.05$. Consistent with Lee *et al.'s* (2001) findings, 'low perceived alternatives' did not contribute to the prediction of turnover intention.

The results of stepwise regression analysis are presented in Table 8.42 below.

Table 8.42: Stepwise regression analysis of organisational commitment and job satisfaction predicting turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees

Variables	Academic employees		Administrative employees	
	β	**t**	**β**	**t**
Affective Commitment	-0.224	-7.888***	-0.280	-5.209***
Continuance commitment (High personal sacrifice)	-0.108	-2.359*	-0.144	-3.300***
Normative commitment	-	-	-0.146	-2.866**
Extrinsic job satisfaction	-	-	-0.178	-4.127***
Intrinsic job satisfaction	-0.214	-7.122***	-	-
	R^2 = 0.408 **Adjusted R^2 = 0.404** ***F* = 101.692****		**R^2 = 0.345** **Adjusted R^2 = 0.339** ***F* = 63.243****	

***** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$**

The results of stepwise regression analysis indicate that organisational commitment

and job satisfaction accounted for 40.8% of the variance in turnover intentions among academics and 34.5% among the administrative staff respondents. This suggests that organisational commitment and job satisfaction were stronger predictors of turnover intentions among academic than administrative employees. The results show that affective commitment (β = -0.224, p < 0.001) and intrinsic job satisfaction (β = -0.214, p < 0.001) contributed the strongest individual variance in turnover intentions among academic employees. On the other hand, affective commitment (β = -0.280, p < 0.001), extrinsic job satisfaction (β = -0.178, p < 0.001) and CC: HPS (β = -0.144, p < 0.001) made the strongest individual contribution in explaining turnover intentions among administrative employees. This suggests that employees who were psychologically attached to their universities and who were satisfied with the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their jobs were less likely to turnover than employees who were dissatisfied with their jobs and who were not emotionally attached to their universities. The results show that CC: LALT did not have any significant influence on employees' turnover decisions. These findings confirm studies that have shown that affective commitment was the strongest predictor of turnover intentions (Meyer *et al*, 1993; Hackett *et al*., 1994; Vandenberghe *et al*., 2001).

8.4 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the results of the hierarchical and stepwise regression analysis exploring the relationships between the independent variables (i.e. demographic characteristics, role stressors, professional commitment, job characteristics and HRM practices) and the dependent variables (i.e. organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions) among employees in public and private universities. HRM practices were significant positive predictors of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and negative predictors of turnover intentions, thus supporting hypotheses 6a and 6b.

The results show that there were significant occupational group differences in the levels of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. With the exception of CC: HPS, the regression models were stronger predictors of job satisfaction and organisational commitment for academic employees than for the

administrative employees, which partially support hypotheses 8a and 8b. Hypothesis 8c which stated that the independent variables were stronger predictors of turnover intentions among academic employees than administrative employees was supported.

The regression analyses showed that role stressors were negative predictors of affective and normative commitment, job satisfaction and positive predictors of continuance commitment, thus partially supporting hypothesis 3a. The analyses also showed that role stressors were significant positive predictors of turnover intentions, thus supporting hypothesis 3b. Job characteristics were significant positive predictors of organisational commitment and job satisfaction and negative predictors of turnover intentions, thus supporting Hypothesis 4a and hypothesis 4b. The hierarchical regression analyses have consistently shown that when job characteristics were added into the equation, the negative effects of role stressors especially role ambiguity, became minimised, thus supporting Hypothesis 4c. This is consistent with the correlation analysis (see Appendix G) which showed that role stressors were negatively correlated with the job characteristics which suggest that employees who perform enriched jobs experience a reduction in role stress. The regression analyses showed that professional commitment was a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and a negative predictor of turnover intentions, thus supporting hypothesis 5a.

In support of Hypothesis 7a, employees from private universities had higher levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction than employees from public universities. These differences are mainly due to superior HRM practices and favourable working conditions in private universities as compared to public universities. Further, the results showed that employees from public universities were more likely to turnover than employees from private universities. This is consistent with the data analyses which showed that employees from private universities were more satisfied with the HR practices, performed more challenging jobs and had lower levels of role stress than employees from public universities.

Consistent with Hypotheses 9, the results showed that organisational commitment and job satisfaction were stronger predictors of turnover intentions for academic employees than administrative employees. Affective commitment, intrinsic and

extrinsic job satisfaction were the strongest negative predictors of turnover intentions. This suggests that employees who were psychologically attached to their universities and satisfied with their jobs were less likely to quit their jobs.

The regression results (i.e. the R^2 values) showed that, unlike affective and normative commitment, the independent variables contributed the least variance in CC: LALT (i.e. 12.2% among administrative employees and 14.5% among administrative employees) and CC: HPS (i.e. 23.7% for academics and 24.5% for administrative employees). A possible explanation for the low R-Squared, especially, for CC: LALT may be that the study may have missed important variables which may influence employees' continuance commitment. This low explained variance in CC: LALT may correspond with studies that have questioned the role of CC: LALT in organisational commitment (Ko *et al*., 1997; Lee *et al*., 2001; Jaros, 2007). On the other hand, the influence that the independent variables had on job satisfaction was rather higher than the influence on multidimensional commitment. This suggests that the work-related practices had higher correlations with job satisfaction than with organisational commitment.

The regression analysis revealed some contradictory results among different groups of respondents. For instance, the analysis showed that female administrative employees had high levels of affective commitment and overall organisational commitment while female academics had lower normative commitment than their male colleagues. Secondly, participation in decision making and professional commitment were positive predictors of continuance commitment for academics and negative predictors for administrative employees. This suggests that administrative employees who were not involved in the decision making process and who were not committed to their professions opted to remain in their universities due to a lack of alternative job opportunities. Such employees may be trapped in their institutions due to perceptions of lack of attractive alternative opportunities. Finally, task variety was a negative predictor of continuance commitment for academic employees which suggests that the cost of leaving was high for academics who lacked variety in their tasks and vice versa.

The next chapter will discuss these findings in the context of existing literature and

make recommendations accordingly.

CHAPTER NINE

Discussion of results

9.1 Introduction

The central theme of this study was to identify the factors that influenced organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees in Kenyan universities. In this regard, the study investigated the impact of employee demographic characteristics, job and role-related factors, professional commitment and HRM practices on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The present chapter summarises the research problem and discusses the broader implications of the findings for theory, practice and further research in the field of Human Resource Management. The structure of the chapter is guided by the research objectives. The chapter attempts to explain the extent to which the results are consistent with or contrary to past empirical findings and theoretical arguments.

9.2 Discussion of the findings

The findings of the study are discussed below.

9.2.1 Applicability of multidimensional organisational commitment in a Kenyan context

The main aim of the study and objective 1 (Chapter 1, p. 10) was to test the applicability of Meyer and Allen's multidimensional organisational commitment to a Kenyan context. In relation to the assertion by Allen and Meyer (1996) that multidimensional organisational commitment should be tested on non-Western settings, the results of exploratory factor analysis (Chapter Seven) showed that organisational commitment in Kenyan universities consisted of three factors. Consistent with studies by Allen and Meyer (1990) and Meyer *et al*. (1993), the

results of exploratory factor analysis indicated that the items making up the organisational commitment items loaded on three separate factors namely; affective commitment (emotional attachment to the organisation), continuance commitment (recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organisation) and normative commitment (perceived obligation to remain with the organisation). Further, continuance commitment revealed that it was a bi-dimensional construct consisting of 'high personal sacrifice' and 'low perceived alternatives' (McGee and Ford, 1987).

The extraction of three factors associated with Meyer and Allen's multidimensional conceptualisation of organisational commitment supports the universality of employee commitment theory. It can therefore be concluded that Meyer and Allen's multidimensional organisational commitment is generalisable to a Kenya in particular. This means that, despite the different cultural contexts in which organisational commitment has been studied, the concept of organisational commitment is universal consisting of affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment.

Several previous studies have reported evidence in support of the construct validity of these measures (e.g. Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer *et al*., 1993; Dunham *et al*, 1994; Hackett *et al*, 1994; Jaros *et al*., 1993; Lee *et al*., 2001; Jaros, 2007). The tests of scale reliability of each of the commitment dimensions were acceptable (Hair *et al*., 1998) with reliability alpha coefficients as follows: affective commitment, $\alpha = 0.876$; normative commitment, $\alpha = 0.765$; CC: HPS, $\alpha = 0.727$; and CC: LALT, $\alpha = 0.716$. Since the publication of Allen and Meyer's (1996) review, several studies have examined the model in other cultural contexts (Ko *et al*, 1997; Wasti, 1999; Suliman and Iles, 2000; Yousef, 2000; Lee *et al*., 2001; Cetin, 2006). The results of this study add to the list of studies which confirm that multidimensional organisational commitment is applicable to a non-Western context and Kenya in particular.

The results of the factor analysis showed that affective commitment had the highest percentage of explained variance (34.3%) in organisational commitment as compared to continuance commitment (13.9%) and normative commitment (6.3%). Similarly, the results indicated that CC: HPS had the highest percentage of explained variance (48.5%) in continuance commitment as compared to CC: LALT which had only

16.8% of the explained variance. This suggests that employees' commitment to their universities consisted more highly of affective and continuance commitment as compared to normative commitment to their universities.

Consistent with previous results, the analysis showed that affective commitment had similar psychometric properties with normative commitment while continuance commitment had low correlations with affective commitment (McGee and Ford, 1987; Cohen, 1993; Allen and Meyer, 1996; Jaros, 2007). This was confirmed by the results which showed that affective commitment had a stronger correlation with normative commitment ($r = 0.649$, $p < 0.01$) than with continuance commitment ($r = 0.272$, $p < 0.01$). The study therefore concludes that, although affective commitment and normative commitment are two distinguishable constructs (i.e. fall on different factors), they have an inherent psychological overlap. According to Allen (2003) "want to stay" (affective) and "ought to stay" (normative) dimensions have greater psychological overlap than either component has with the "have to stay" notion associated with continuance commitment. As noted by Allen and Meyer (1996) it may not be possible for an employee to feel a strong obligation to an organisation without also developing positive emotional feelings for it.

Consistent with previous findings (Hackett *et al*., 1994; McGee and Ford, 1987), continuance commitment was found to be a bi-dimensional construct consisting of 'high personal sacrifice' and 'low perceived alternatives'. Contrary to studies which found that affective commitment and continuance commitment were completely distinct constructs (Meyer and Allen, 1984; Cohen, 1993), the results of this study have shown that the two sub-dimensions of continuance commitment related differentially to affective commitment. Whereas CC: HPS had positive, moderate correlations with affective commitment ($r = 0.416$, $p < 0.01$) and normative commitment ($r = 0.474$, $p < 0.01$), CC: LALT had a positive, non-significant correlation with affective commitment ($r = 0.046$, $p > 0.05$) and weak positive correlations with normative commitment ($r = 0.131$, $p < 0.01$). This supports McGee and Ford's (1987) assertion that employees who were emotionally committed to their organisations were less likely to remain because of a perceived lack of alternatives but were more likely to perceive great personal sacrifice related to leaving their universities. In this regard, Meyer *et al*. (1990, p.719) argue that "the accumulation of

investments that bind an individual to an organisation can lead, through a process of self-justification or dissonance reduction, to the development of an affective attachment to the organisation". Similarly, Steers and Porter (1983, p. 428) suggested that employees who feel bound to an organisation (through side bets or sunk costs) "… typically engage in some form of psychological bolstering in which they attempt to rationalise or self-justify their situation …". Employees are therefore likely to translate the binding properties of high personal investments into a greater degree of affective attachment to their organisations in order to reduce the painful reality that they may be trapped in their organisations because of the high costs associated with leaving (Cohen, 2003).

The significant positive correlations among affective commitment, normative commitment and CC: HPS support studies have shown that attitudinal and behavioural commitments were not mutually exclusive but interrelated (Mowday *et al*., 1982; Coopey and Hartley, 1991; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Malhotra *et al*. (2007) concluded from their study that the three components of organisational commitment were not independent of each other, since continuance commitment led to normative commitment, and normative commitment further led to affective commitment.

On the other hand, the correlations between CC: LALT and the other dimensions of organisational commitment have been quite low in this study. Further, unlike affective and normative commitment, the independent variables of this study accounted for little variance in CC: LALT (i.e. Adjusted R-Squared = 077 for administrative employees and .096 for academics). It is likely that the study may have missed variables that were important in predicting CC: LALT. However, other studies have found similar low R-Squared in relation to continuance commitment. For instance, Park and Rainey (2007) in a survey study of 6,900 US federal employees, found that the independent variables of the study accounted for 11.1% (Adjusted R^2 = .111) of the variance in continuance commitment as compared to affective commitment (R^2 = .327) and normative commitment (R^2 = .247). Consequently, some researchers have questioned the role of CC: LALT as a dimension of organisational commitment (Ko *et al*, 1997; Jaros, 2007). For instance, Ko *et al*. (1997) concluded from their study that the lack of employment alternatives was not part of commitment, but a

determinant of commitment, and suggested that this dimension should be eliminated from the continuance commitment measures. Similarly, Jaros (2007) suggested that perceptions of employment alternatives did not reflect the existence of sunk costs and therefore should not be used as a measure of continuance commitment. On the other hand, Powell and Meyer (2004) and Lee *et al*. (2001) recommend that the perceived lack of alternatives as assessed by the CC: LALT subscale should be dropped and instead be considered as an antecedent of CC: HPS. Lee *et al*. further suggested that continuance commitment scales should be modified to reflect the CC: HPS component which has been found to reflect Becker's Side-bet theory of commitment rather than the CC: LALT component.

9.4.2 Antecedents of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic and administrative staff

The second aim of the study and the fourth objective of the study (Chapter 1, p. 10) were expected to establish the factors influencing organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees.

9.4.2.1 The relationship between demographic characteristics with organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to turnover.

The results indicate that age and education were the strongest significant predictors of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic and administrative staff. Among academic employees, only gender and positional tenure were significant predictors of normative commitment and intrinsic job satisfaction while job tenure predicted turnover intentions. On the other hand, gender, marital status and tenure (both position and job) were significant predictors of organisational commitment and job satisfaction among administrative employees.

Age was a positive predictor of organisational commitment and job satisfaction and a negative predictor of turnover intentions. Unlike younger employees, older employees were more committed to their universities, satisfied with their jobs and less likely to quit because of the investments they had in their universities, the experiences they had accumulated over the years, limited alternative employment opportunities and due to

declining expectations from their jobs (Mowday *et al*., 1982; Allen and Meyer, 1990; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Clark, Oswald and Warr, 1996; Carson and Carson, 2002; Cetin, 2006; Smerek and Peterson, 2007; Chew and Chan, 2008). These results are contrary to studies which found that organisational commitment and job satisfaction decreased with increase in age (Oshagbemi, 1998; Hickson and Oshagbemi, 1999; Al-Qarioti and Al-Enezi, 2004).

With regard to *gender*, female administrative staff had higher levels of affective commitment and overall organisational commitment than their male counterparts. These findings are contrary to studies by Aven *et al*., (1993) which did not find any relationship between gender and attitudinal commitment. Because of their limited academic qualifications (See Chapter 7, Section 7.2), most female administrative employees were less likely to compete effectively for available jobs in the labour market. With growing unemployment rates in Kenya, and thus reduced alternative job opportunities, it is likely that their expectations of what constitutes a good job may decline, making these cadres of female employees become satisfied with what they have, thus increasing their commitment to their universities. Crosby (1982) cited by Mulinge (2001b, p.113) referred to this scenario as 'the paradox of the contented female worker' whereby women who hold jobs in which they experience fewer rewards, poorer working conditions, less autonomy and authority than men were just as satisfied with their jobs and committed to their employers as their male colleagues. On the other hand, female academic employees had lower levels of normative commitment than their male colleagues. It is likely that unsatisfactory HRM practices have eroded female academics loyalty to their universities. For instance, due to family/work conflict, most female academics are likely to "perish" due to challenges they face in publishing academic papers, yet this is a critical factor in their promotion criteria. According to Okpara, Squillace and Erondu (2005) family/work conflict has resulted in female faculty being overworked and tired, thus affecting their teaching and professional performance. Olsen *et al*. (1995) found that children have cost some female academics in USA a couple of articles a year. Other challenges that Kenyan female academics face include discriminatory appointments into positions of authority, lack of opportunities for further training, sex role stereotyping, among others (Mulinge, 2001a; UNESCO, 2002; Onsongo, 2003, 2004; Nyaigotti-Chacha, 2004).

The findings indicate that *marital status* was a significant predictor of CC: HPS and overall organisational commitment among administrative staff but not for academic employees. Unlike academic employees who have different ways of supplementing their income through activities such as part-time teaching, consultancy and research activities, most of the administrative employees depend wholly on their salaries. Consistent with previous studies, married administrative employees are not likely to risk quitting their jobs because of the great financial burdens they have due to family responsibilities (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Taormina, 1999; Carson and Carson, 2002; Cetin, 2006).

The results have shown that *job tenure* was a significant positive predictor of turnover intentions among academic employees. This suggests that academics, who had worked in their universities for a long time, were likely to have reached the peak of their careers and therefore to be looking for more challenging opportunities. On the other hand, job tenure was a positive predictor of normative commitment and overall organisational commitment among administrative staff. Consistent with the literature, administrative employees who had worked in their universities for a long time became more committed and loyal to their universities because chances of getting alternative jobs diminish with increased age and tenure (Steers, 1977; Angle and Perry, 1981; Mowday *et al*., 1982; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). In addition, administrative employees in Kenyan universities retire at 55 years, unlike academics who retire at 70 years, and are therefore unlikely to risk their retirement benefits and job security by leaving their universities, especially when they approach retirement.

Position tenure was a negative predictor of normative commitment and intrinsic job satisfaction among academic employees, and a positive predictor of CC: HPS among administrative employees. Consistent with previous studies, academic employees who had stagnated in the same position for long became frustrated and disillusioned with their jobs (Steven *et al*., 1978; Hogan, Lambert, Jenkins and Wambold, 2006). It is also likely that as time goes on, academics realise that their chances for promotion to more senior positions may be decreasing. On the other hand, administrative employees who had stagnated in the same position for a long time developed high costs associated with leaving their jobs (Carson and Carson, 2002). Since these were likely to be older employees, they risked losing their seniority, pension plans,

disrupting their families, and losing their retirement benefits among others.

The results showed that *education* was a negative predictor of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and a positive predictor of turnover intentions among academic and administrative staff. These results are consistent with previous studies which found that employees with lower levels of education were more satisfied with their jobs, more committed to their universities and less likely to quit their jobs because they had fewer employment options than employees with higher levels of education (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Cohen, 1992; Taormina, 1999; Mowday *et al*., 1982; Steers, 1977; Clark *et al*., 1996; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Eskildsen *et al*., 2004). Further, employees with higher levels of education had greater alternative employment opportunities and higher expectations which were not likely to be met by their employers (Mowday *et al*., 1982; Angle and Perry, 1983).

9.4.2.2 The relationship between job and role-related factors and organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to turnover.

This study sought to test the effects of job and role-related factors on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The results support the social exchange theory which posits that employees attach themselves to their organisations in return for certain favourable rewards. In this regard, employees who are provided with meaningful jobs with minimal stress are likely to respond favourably towards the organisation.

Consistent with previous research, *role ambiguity* was a significant positive predictor of turnover intentions and a negative predictor of affective and normative commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Brown and Peterson, 1993; Peterson *et al*., 1995; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Veloutsou and Panigyrakis, 2004; Dixon *et al*., 2005; Jamarillo *et al*., 2006). This suggests that employees who experience higher levels of role ambiguity are less likely to identify with the goals of their universities or feel a sense of moral obligation to remain in their universities (Addae, Parboteeah and Velinor, 2008). According to Lambert and Paoline (2008) role stress often arises because of lack of direction and clarity from supervisors, managers, and/or administrators, which leads most workers to blame the organisation. This was supported by a senior administrator in one of the public universities who remarked:

> ... there is discrepancy arising from the management styles whereby information doesn't get down to people. Things are done at the top only, resulting in the people at the bottom not knowing what is expected of them. Secondly, if the people don't know that they are contributing to the wellbeing of the organisation, there will be a disconnect between what the managers want and what the staff want or how things ought to be… Some of us managers think that we know what other people want or are supposed to do. So if there is no discussion among the staff and the leaders, it becomes difficult to know what needs to be done.

However, contrary to previous studies, role ambiguity did not have a significant influence on job satisfaction among academic and administrative staff (Bedeian and Armenakis, 1981; Fisher and Gitelson, 1983; Brown and Peterson, 1993; Gregson and Wendell, 1994; Ngo *et al*., 2005). This means that although employees' commitment to their universities declined when they operated in situations in which they did not have all the information relevant to their jobs, their satisfaction with their jobs was not significantly affected, especially when they had favourable working conditions and vice versa. It is likely that employees derive job satisfaction from more direct aspects of their work (e.g., autonomy, promotional opportunities, job variety, etc.) over more abstract concepts such as role ambiguity.

Contrary to previous studies (Karatepe, 2006; Yousef, 2002; Mohr and Puck, 2007), the results found that *role conflict* was a positive predictor of CC: HPS and CC: LALT for both academic and administrative staff. This suggests that although role conflict eroded employees' psychological attachment and loyalty to their universities, employees chose to continue membership in their universities out of necessity rather than a sense of loyalty or psychological attachment. Role conflict and *role overload* were negative predictors of job satisfaction and positive predictors of turnover intentions for academic and administrative employees (Jackson and Schuler, 1985; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Brown and Peterson, 1993; Volkwein and Parmley, 2000). This means that employees who were overloaded and who encountered incompatible role demands in the course of their work became dissatisfied with their jobs and were more likely to quit their jobs. The demand for higher education in Kenya has increased tremendously over the last two decades without a commensurate increase in staffing capacity, especially academic staff. This has affected the quality of teaching and staff morale as some academics teach large classes ranging from 300 to 600

students, which in turn affects the quality of marking, grading, supervision and regular consultations with students.

Job characteristics (i.e. job autonomy, feedback, skills variety, co-worker and supervisory support) were found to be positive predictors of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and negative predictors of turnover intentions. Job autonomy had a significant effect on job satisfaction for both academic and administrative employees, and affective commitment for administrative employees. This suggests that the opportunity to work independently with minimal supervision was important in shaping the job satisfaction of employees. Previous studies have shown that job satisfaction and organisational commitment increased when employees performed enriched jobs characterised by skills variety, autonomy and feedback (Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Fried and Ferris, 1987; Singh, 1998; Brown and Peterson, 1993; Bhuian and Menguc, 2002; Latham, 2007). Enriched jobs allow employees to feel personally responsible for their work, provide them with meaningful and challenging outcomes, and provide them with adequate feedback or knowledge of their work performance (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Abdel-Halim, 1978). Consequently, employees who performed enriched jobs were more likely to cope with role stress than employees on un-enriched jobs.

Social support (i.e. supervisory and co-worker support) emerged as positive determinants of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and negative predictors of turnover intentions. This suggests that friendly and supportive relationships with co-workers and supervisors had a strong, positive effect on employees' commitment and satisfaction with their jobs. *Co-worker support* was a significant positive predictor of job satisfaction among academic employees, which suggests that academics who had satisfactory professional interaction with their colleagues at work, received respect from fellow employees, had collegial relations at work and had confidence and trust in their colleagues, tended to be more satisfied with their jobs than academics with poor co-worker support. Oshagbemi (1996) found that 69.7% of UK academics were satisfied with co-worker support and that it contributed more to job satisfaction than dissatisfaction. Lacy and Sheehan (1997) found that over 70% of academics studied from eight countries were satisfied with the relationships with their co-workers. Similarly, Hagedorn (1996) found that

interpersonal relationships positively influenced job satisfaction and also lessened job-related stress. Among administrative employees, co-worker support was a negative predictor of turnover intentions which suggests that support from colleagues was an important factor in shaping employees decision to quit or remain in the organisation.

Supportive supervision had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction and turnover intentions for academic employees, and both job satisfaction and organisational commitment for administrative employees. Unlike administrative employees who require a considerable degree of supervision, academics are more autonomous and require minimal supervision from their supervisors (i.e. dean of faculty, head of department, academic registrar or the Deputy Vice Chancellor in charge of academic affairs). Therefore, supervisors who take an interest in and care about their employees, keep them appraised and apprised constantly as to how they are doing, send a message to employees that the organisation cares about them and supports them, resulting in increased job satisfaction and organisational commitment (William and Hazer, 1986; Iverson *et al*., 1998; Volkwein and Promley, 2000: Dixon *et al*., 2005; Chughtai and Zafar, 2006).

9.4.2.3 The relationship between professional commitment and organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Consistent with previous studies, professional commitment was positively correlated with organisational commitment, job satisfaction and negatively correlated with turnover intentions (Aranya and Ferris, 1983; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Wallace, 1993; Baugh and Roberts, 1994; Wang and Armstrong, 2004; Chang and Choi, 2007). The results showed that employees (i.e. both academic and administrative) who had high levels of professional commitment also had high levels of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and were less likely to turnover and vice versa. The results from this study contradict previous studies which found a "commitment dilemma" or "organisational – professional conflict" (Gouldner, 1957; Hall, 1968). However, the findings indicate that there was a negative correlation between professional commitment and CC: LALT for administrative staff. This indicates that administrative employees who had low commitment to their professions were less likely to leave their jobs because of limited alternative jobs and vice versa.

9.4.2.4 The relationship between human resource management practices with organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Several HRM practices which influenced organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic and administrative staff were identified in the study. Consistent with the social exchange theory, employees interpret HR practices as indicative of the organisation's commitment to them, such that employees who are satisfied with these practices reciprocate by adjusting their attitudes towards their organisations (Guzzo and Noonan, 1994; Gould-Williams and Davies, 2005).

Job security was a significant positive predictor of CC: HPS, normative commitment and job satisfaction and a negative predictor of turnover intentions for academic, while it was a positive predictor of continuance commitment for administrative employees. Studies have shown that employees who were provided with high employment security were more committed to their organisations and more satisfied with their jobs than employees who perceived a threat to their employment (Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Hallier and Lyon, 1996; Delaney and Huselid, 1996; Yousef, 1998; Buitendach and De Witte, 2005). Employees who are assured of continued employment are likely to increase their belief in their universities values, be willing to exert effort on behalf of their universities and feel obliged to return the loyalty exhibited by their organisations (McElroy, 2001). For administrative employees, leaving the university would result in the loss of secure employment relationship or unemployment due to the lack of alternative opportunities elsewhere. This fear has resulted from the Public Service Reform Programme of 2000/2001 which introduced the concept of "LIFO" (i.e. Last In, First Out) implying that new recruits would be the first casualties in the event of any future downsizing.

Consistent with previous studies, *promotional opportunities* was a positive predictor of organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Grusky, 1966; Iles *et al*., 1990; Snell and Dean, 1992; Kalleberg and Mastekaasaz, 1994; Young *et al*., 1998; Meyer and Smith, 2000; Malhotra *et al*., 2007). This shows that employees, who had adequate promotional opportunities and perceived the promotion procedures to be fair, developed strong psychological attachment and loyalty to their universities. In addition, employees who are promoted receive increased pay, high status and their self-esteem is boosted, resulting in increased job satisfaction unlike employees who

stagnate in the same position. Since it is not possible for the organisation to promote all its employees, Lambert and Paoline (2008) recommend that the promotion procedures must be seen to be fair, clear and objective (as opposed to informal methods) therefore mitigating the negative feelings of employees who are not promoted.

For academic employees, promotion is dependent on teaching, research and publications. However, due to financial constraints, non-prioritisation of research by government and inadequate publishing facilities, publishing of refereed articles has become a monumental challenge for Kenyan and other African academics (Ajayi *et al*., 1996; Kigotho, 2008b; Yizengaw, 2008). Tetty (2006) found that promotional procedures in African universities were long, stressful and cumbersome, while the requirements were unreasonable, for instance, possession of a doctorate as a prerequisite for promotion beyond the position of a lecturer. Oshagbemi (1996) found that UK academics were mainly concerned with promotions being biased towards quantity instead of the quality of publications and the neglect of teaching and administrative responsibilities when considering promotions.

The problem related to promotions was confirmed by a public university lecturer in an interview, who stated that:

> … to publish a quality paper, one needs plenty of time to research well and because of the pressure of teaching[15] and the element of promotion being pegged on publishing, sometimes you can stay in one grade … people are required to have four papers from refereed journals, when do I get to do this when I have 12 credit hours to teach in 10 weeks? … University should not just look at how many papers you have published … [other relevant activities such as] teaching, writing manuals, book chapters, supervision are rated low when it comes to interviews.

Promotional procedures are also a thorny issue among administrative employees in public universities. A Senior Administrator from a public university, who was interviewed, said:

> … for a long time, there has been a cry about employees staying for a long time in the same position without being promoted. People therefore accuse us

[15] Public universities have three semesters in one calendar year

> of bias. Over the last two years, we are developing a document i.e. schemes of service and job descriptions for approval and then have a programme of reviews so that staff who meet the minimum requirements as provided by the scheme of service progress to the next level.

Dissatisfaction with the promotional procedures was evident among the middle management employees:

> This is not good. For instance, when one has completed additional training and forwarded the certificates to personnel, one is told that they will be considered when an opportunity arises and this sometimes takes years, and yet one has spent time and money to obtain the additional qualification. A policy should be set up which clearly states the progression upon completion of specific qualification. This lack of progression has made employees to be discontented... in some cases, employees with lower qualifications have higher grades than people with additional qualification who are told to wait (Middle Management employee, public university).

However, the promotional practices in private universities are quite different and the process is fairly carried out. A Human resource officer in a private university said:

> Promotions are available and we have encouraged a lot of staff to apply especially the academic staff. There is a staffing manual which has the criteria for promotion e.g. how many publications are needed; teaching, participation in community development, etc. For non-teaching staff, the criteria are equally clear e.g. possession of certain skills and specific years of experience … you cannot be promoted if you are a non-performer … Being a Christian institution, we are guided by Godly values and … ensure fair play at all levels... We hold interviews and those found to be suitable are appointed to the new positions. The interview panel … is multi- disciplinary [with] members of the clergy who are expected to enhance honesty.

Consistent with previous studies, *participation in decision making* was found to be a positive predictor of organisational commitment and job satisfaction for all employees, and a negative predictor of turnover intentions for academics (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Boshoff and Mels, 1995; Mayer and Schoorman, 1998; Pfeffer, 1998; Malhotra *et al*., 2007). Involving employees in the decision making process and keeping them informed about what is happening in their universities and departments sends a message to the employees that they are valued and trusted. In addition, allowing employees to have input about how their jobs are to be accomplished allows employees to be more effective at their jobs, leading to increased pride and hence, greater job satisfaction (Lambert and Paoline, 2008). Tetty (2006) points out that consultation with, and participation by, academics in decision making help them feel

part of the organisation and gives them a sense of ownership in the outcome of those decisions. Consequently, academics who feel that their autonomy is compromised, their desire for innovation is not supported and collegiality is non-existent, are likely to leave their institutions (Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002; Tetty, 2006).

However, for administrative employees, participation in decision making was a negative predictor of CC: LALT which suggested that employees who were dissatisfied with the decision making process opted to remain in their universities as a result of limited alternative employment opportunities. Similarly, employees who were trapped in their jobs due to lack of attractive alternative opportunities were likely to be dissatisfied with the decision making process in their universities. This is consistent with Gelade *et al*. (2006) who found that employees from less economically developed nations were likely to accept unfulfilling work due to limited choice in the job market. Obondoh (2001) noted that lack of regular dialogue or joint forums, consultations and effective communications between employees and management in public universities has been a source of employee disenchantment. This was confirmed by comments from a Senior Administrator of a public university:

> Majority of decisions in public universities are made by committees ... It takes long to make decisions so it hampers efficiency and effectiveness because by the time you make a decision it will no longer be necessary. … Committees hamper creative people since those who are creative are not given an opportunity … It also demeans offices … the general perception is, why are you there when you cannot make a decision? Why are you there when you have to refer something to another organ?

A Line manager from one of the public universities had this to say:

> The decision is made first and then communicated down to the rest of the people and that is not satisfactory. We should have a bottom-up approach. The university should consult first, [get] stakeholders views and opinions … The current practice of management making all decision is not acceptable to employees. The impact of that decision may not be felt… people don't own the decision and do not feel part of the decision making process. Sometimes decisions made may not be the best decision and therefore won't work. As a line manager, you are left to get your people to fit into a decision that was made elsewhere, which you also don't understand. It therefore becomes difficult to get people to pull together.

Unlike public universities, the decision making process in private universities is more

participative and consultative. A Human Resource manager of a private university said:

> Employee's views are sought on important issues … they have ownership for decisions that are made … In many committees that we have, there are representatives from each cadre of staff … we are a team, a community… Communication is managed from various departments. If there is an issue that is affecting the university, the Vice Chancellor will issue a circular to all members of staff so that everybody knows what is happening… Deans and HODs then gather information which must be relayed back to the VC...

Training and development was a positive predictor of affective commitment and job satisfaction. Consistent with previous studies (Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Tannenbaum *et al*., 1991; Arthur, 1994; Wood and de Menezes, 1998; Taormina, 1999; McElroy, 2001) provision of adequate training opportunities sends a message to employees that they are valued by their universities resulting in strong psychological bonding and a willingness to contribute more to the achievement of their universities objectives. In addition, employees who receive support from their universities in developing their skills and knowledge, become more satisfied with their jobs as this improves their chances of getting promoted, resulting in better pay and improved status in their universities. Although public universities lack funds to sponsor employees for external training, employees have been awarded tuition waiver to study within their universities. The main problem of training activities in public universities has the lack of training needs analysis. According to an Administration Registrar of a public university:

> ... people are enrolling for courses that are not even relevant purely for promotion purposes. To meet the promotional requirements, people have opted for "easy" courses such as Library and information science. Several employees have attained certificates, diplomas and degrees in the area resulting in a glut. These employees are now demoralised as they all cannot work in the library... literally all the secretaries are registering for either Diploma in Guidance and Counselling or Bachelor of Arts. The problem is that we are the same people who are approving these employees to go for training and when they come back and there is no opportunity for promotion they get demoralised.

On the other hand, training and development in private universities is quite systematic and well-planned. According to the Personnel Manager of one of the universities:

> There is a lot of consultation which is done by various departments ... They must evaluate the training they have against the needs they require, and the deficit is what they meet. There are training committees which are composed of Dean and Heads of Department. Whatever training is required by a member of staff is brought to the committee for consideration. This ensures that nobody is treated unfairly. The university supports employees, who have admissions both within and outside the university. The university can also seek sponsorship from other universities or agencies like the commonwealth...

Performance appraisal was a positive predictor of CC: HPS and job satisfaction. Performance appraisal which is used to determine employees' rewards and other benefits will motivate them to update their knowledge and skills and therefore enhance their attachment to their universities (Paul and Anantharaman, 2003). However, if performance appraisal is carried out merely to attain organisational objectives or the process is perceived as unfair, organisational commitment and job satisfaction will decline (Oglivie, 1986; Huselid, 1995; Paul and Anantharaman, 2003; Kamoche *et al*., 2004; Kuvaas, 2006). The problem with performance appraisal in public universities is that it is used for monitoring new employees during their two-year probationary period while other employees are neglected. A university administrator, who was interviewed, had this to say about performance appraisals:

> The university does not take this exercise seriously. The last time this was done was over 5 years back. This is an area whereby if your report is adversely written, you would expect to be involved so that in the next one year you can be monitored and show some improvement. However, this doesn't happen. Somebody writes a bad report about you and you are not involved. You are then viewed as a useless person. Instead, the employee is not encouraged, involved, given support, incentives or … even counselling.

This perception was further corroborated by another administrator who added that:

> … when it comes to evaluation for promotion, there is no record to fall back on. The panel is therefore forced to make decisions without the performance background of the candidate. If this [appraisal] was done quarterly or yearly, one would be able to build a profile on a person's performance and therefore make fair evaluation of the person's promotion prospects.

Unlike the public universities, performance appraisals in private universities are carried out routinely and employees informed of their performance. A HR office stated that:

> Performance appraisal should be considered as a process, something that must

> be done routinely …you do not have to wait until the end of the academic year to tell a lecturer that he/she is not performing because you have not helped that person. Performance appraisal is a performance plan that you work at daily. Lecturers are evaluated by the students; HODs and Deans evaluate lectures, and peer evaluation also. These are then brought to a committee that is chaired by the DVC (AA). Employees with poor ratings are then talked to.

Career development was found to be a significant positive predictor of organisational commitment, intrinsic job satisfaction and a negative predictor of turnover intentions. This is consistent with previous studies which found career development as the best predictor of organisational commitment (Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Taormina, 1999; Meyer and Smith, 2000; Paul and Anantharaman, 2003; 2004). Employees who had good prospects for career development were likely to be more satisfied with their jobs and become psychologically attached to their universities and therefore contribute positively towards their universities success (Taormina, 1999; Paul and Anantharaman, 2003).

Pay satisfaction was a positive predictor of affective commitment, job satisfaction, and a negative predictor of turnover intentions among academic employees and a positive predictor of extrinsic job satisfaction among administrative employees. Consistent with previous studies, employees who were satisfied with their pay became satisfied with their jobs, were committed to their universities and were less likely to quit their jobs unlike employees who were dissatisfied with their pay (Mottaz, 1988; Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Meyer and Smith, 2000; Oshagbemi, 2000; McElroy, 2001; Küskü, 2003). Consistent with the social exchange theory, employees perform their jobs with the understanding that their employers will reciprocate by providing compensation and other positive considerations which are commensurate with their output (Chew and Chan, 2008). Employees therefore are more likely to remain if they are rewarded fairly and adequately, and if their capabilities, efforts and performance contributions are recognised and appreciated. Oshagbemi (1996, 2000) in his study of UK academics found that pay affected the overall job satisfaction or dissatisfaction of an employee and that British dons were generally dissatisfied with their pay.

Dissatisfaction with pay by Kenyan academics has resulted in frequent strikes and closure of public universities (Kigotho, 1994; Makabila, 2006; Mkawale, 2007). For

instance, the strike by public universities lecturers over pay dispute in October, 2006 led to a three months closure of all universities, with the exception of University of Nairobi, which did not join in the strike. The strike was only called off without an amicable solution in January, 2007 after the government withheld their salaries and started sacking the lecturers. The bullying tactics by the government left most of the academics feeling discontented. Consequently, because of their dissatisfaction with pay, most of the academics have had to supplement their income through other means in order to make ends meet (Ajayi *et al.*, 1996). Considering that Kenya is a collectivist society, an employee is expected to not only shoulder the responsibility of ones immediate family but also that of the extended family. This is confirmed by Grzeda and Assogbavi (1999) cited by Jackson (2004) who states that in an African setting "… wages are the property of the family not the individual". This is supported by a public university lecturer who states:

> We are not satisfied [with pay] although now we are better off than a few years ago, thanks to UASU [Academic Staff Union] but we have a big problem when compared to the other markets … salaries in Kenya are awarded politically. What criteria do they have to give a lecturer not even a quarter of the allowance of an MP[16]? … Let them recognise merit and give salaries based on academic qualification … I am a father, a husband, and I also have an entire family (the African way). With HIV/AIDS, we have so many people to take care of. You see, even if you don't have a child, you have 'children'. There is no way you can escape… You definitely cannot make ends meet… if I get anything else which can generate income, I'll do it and that affects my work as a lecturer.

Consistent with previous studies, *distributive justice* was found to be a positive predictor of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and a negative predictor of turnover intentions (Mueller and Price, 1986; Greenberg, 1990; Meyer and Smith, 2000; Lambert, 2003; Lambert *et al.*, 2007). The positive relationships suggest that the commitment levels of employees and their satisfaction with their jobs increased when they perceived their universities to be fair and just in determining their rewards, and decreased when they perceived their universities as being unfair. Kamoche *et al.* (2004) found that the problems of motivating employees in the public sector in Kenya were affected by unfair practices in the remuneration of workers.

[16] Kenyan Members of Parliament earn an untaxed monthly salary of over £7500 excluding allowances

9.5 Differences in organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions between academic and administrative staff

The second objective of the study was to determine the extent to which academic and administrative staff differed in their levels of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The results have shown that the common antecedents of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees were age, education, job security, distributive justice, participation in decision making, professional commitment, promotional opportunities, role conflict, role overload and supervisory support. However, despite these similarities, the regression results (i.e. R^2 values) showed that the independent variables were stronger predictors of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic employees than administrative employees.

The differences in job satisfaction and organisational commitment could be attributed to the perceived importance of the work roles of academic staff vis-à-vis that of administrative employees resulting in conflicts and tensions on both sides. Academics in Kenyan universities, particularly, in public universities have generally looked down upon administrative staff resulting in resentment from administrative employees who feel unvalued and unrecognised. When asked in an interview about the relationship between academic and administrative staff, a non-academic staff union (UNTESU) leader in one of the public universities said:

> The relationship is not very good because of the perception that the teaching staff have that all those who don't teach are academic "dwarfs", that they don't have any abilities and therefore don't deserve to be in a university environment ... The top management also plays a role in this issue. The top management in all public university are members of the academic division and when they get there, they continue to propagate the perceptions that they had.

A similar sentiment was expressed by a senior administrator (a PhD holder) from a public university:

> … we have heads [Top management] who have academic qualifications such as lecturers and professors, who end up manning divisions in the university, but you ask yourself whether they are actually trained in management. They may not manage human resources the way it is expected. Also in our

> experience, their allegiance, even when making decisions concerning staff, … they tend to forget that they are managers and go back to their own academic appointments, e.g. 'I am a lecturer in this position', so they tend to favour lecturers more than the other staff, thus resulting in conflict. With regard to our jobs [administration] … you don't get to utilise your full potential. You are more or less a "super clerk" because people have not known that people who are in non-academic positions can be able to think, be able to do things right, so because we are headed by these academicians, then they tend to look down upon us …

These tensions and lack of respect for administrative staff are not unique to Kenyan universities but are also found in universities in western countries. For instance, administrators from Australian universities are resentful of the manner in which they have been described by their government. According to Szekeres (2004, p. 7), the Australian government has defined academic staff as "those members of staff employed to perform the functions of teaching-only, research-only or teaching-and-research" while administrative staff are described as "not one of the three types specified for the academic classification, they are classified as having a non-academic classification". As a result, Rodan (1997) cited by Dobson (2000, p. 205) argues that "progressive members of the non-general staff would accept that defining people by what they are not is totally unacceptable".

The role of administrative staff has also been downplayed in most universities resulting in Szekeres (2004) labelling this group as "the invisible workers" while Dobson (2000) marvels at the propensity for general (i.e. non-academic) staff to be ignored and acknowledges the existence of the "them and us" attitude. Conway (2000, p. 199) while discussing the role of administrators in Australia reports that "university administrators are used to being ignored … by government, by the institutions which employ them and by the academics with whom they work with on a day-to-day basis". Similarly, McInnis (1998, p. 161) citing Evatt Foundation (1994) reported that knowledge of the Australian professional administrators was virtually nil, since they "have been traditionally treated as the 'poor relations' of the university system, not worthy of sustained research or analysis by academics or management". McInnis (1998) who undertook a study of 1,281 senior administrators regarding their job satisfaction, morale, work atmosphere, work values and how they viewed academic work, found that the greatest complaint of the senior administrators was a lack of respect from academic staff.

McInnis (1997) cited by Dobson (2000, p. 205) reported that "the most obvious source of tension and potential for everyday conflict in the workplace derives from the lack of acknowledgement administrators feel they got for their increasingly specialist skills and knowledge". Similarly Kuo (2009), in a study of administrators and academics in the United States, reports that in order to achieve collaboration, there is need for academic and administrative employees to understand how and why their cultural perspectives are similar, different or divided and what factors or challenges affect their interactions. In this regard, Swenk (1999) cited by Kuo (2009, p. 52) reports that "when both administrators and faculty ignore their cultural differences, the results are generally bad for the institution". Similar tensions between academic and administrative employees have been found to exist in universities in the United Kingdom, Finland and Netherlands (Dobson, 2000).

The differences in the commitment and job satisfaction levels of academic and administrative staff can also be explained by the nature of their work. Academic employees have more autonomy, have task variety and do not have the pressure of constant supervision like administrative staff. This is supported by studies which have shown that academics derive satisfaction from considerable degree of autonomy they enjoy in their work (i.e. freedom to plan their own time, freedom to choose own research topic and the content to teach), task variety, flexibility of working hours, interactions with students, intellectual challenge they get from their jobs and ability to produce new knowledge (Lacy and Sheehan, 1997; Dee, Henkin and Chen, 2000; Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002; Bellamy, Morley and Watty, 2003; Adriaenssens, De Prins and Vloeberghs, 2006; Fuller *et al*., 2006). Bellamy *et al*. (2003) in a study of academics from Australian universities, found that flexibility of working hours, autonomy, ability to structure one's day, task variety, teaching and research ranked as the most important factors in achieving work satisfaction.

Academic employees are more likely to find it easier to change jobs due to the high qualifications and specialised knowledge and skills they have, unlike administrative employees who tend to settle in their jobs because their skills are more general and may not be in demand in the labour market. As a result, administrative employees are more likely to be victims of redundancy or staff rationalisation than academic employees.

9.6 Sector differences in organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions

The second and third objectives of the study were to identify factors influencing organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among employees in public and private universities and the extent to which they differed in their levels of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Consistent with previous studies, employees from private universities had higher levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and were less likely to turnover than employees from public universities (Buchanan, 1974b; Rainey *et al*., 1976; Solomon, 1986; Baldwin, 1987; Zeffane, 1994; Goulet and Frank, 2002; Obeng and Ugboro, 2003). This indicates that employees from private universities had stronger sense of emotional attachment and loyalty to their universities than employees from public universities. In addition, they were more satisfied with the extrinsic and intrinsic aspects of their jobs. These differences may be a result of public sector organisations being too bureaucratic, and deficient in goal clarity, with ambiguous and conflicting goals, lower levels of job autonomy, task variety and feedback, unlike private sector organisations which have greater autonomy and enriched jobs (Rainey *et al*., 1976; Balfour and Wechsler, 1991; Bourantas and Papalexandris, 1992; Flynn and Tannenbaum, 1993; Mulinge, 2000). Further, unlike the private universities, job security was lower in public universities due to organisational reforms which resulted in redundancies (Snyder *et al*., 1996). These factors are likely to negatively affect employees' commitment to their universities (Mulinge, 2000).

The regression results have shown that the HR practices in private universities were superior to those of public universities. Because some of the private universities have strong links with foreign universities, they are more likely to use the management systems from those countries. Some of these universities also engage in staff exchange programmes with their parent universities, which expose them to sophisticated management practices (Wesonga *et al*., 2007). Wesonga *et al*. (2007) observe that once recruitment of staff has taken place in private universities, the management of employees (i.e. academic and administrative) is devolved to the deans and heads of departments, whose responsibilities include motivating staff by offering them a good working environment and career paths that provide opportunities and

means of advancement in their jobs. On the other hand, the management of human resources in public universities is the preserve of the personnel department, Registrar (Administration) and the Deputy Vice Chancellor (Administration and Finance). These offices make the final decisions related to staff development, recruitment and compensations.

Unlike public universities which are funded mainly by the government and controlled by political forces, private universities are controlled by market forces as they depend on tuition fees as their main source of funds (Boyne, 2002; Abagi *et al*., 2005). As a result, private universities are managed like business enterprises, which mean that their recruitment policies are strictly adhered to in order to ensure they employ the most qualified employees. Consequently, their HRM policies and work practices are designed to ensure that they maintain a committed and satisfied workforce.

Consistent with public sector organisations in sub-Saharan Africa, public universities are afflicted by poor infrastructure, political interference, poor incentives while employees perform jobs which lack clear objectives, and have unclear job descriptions and job evaluation (Jackson, 2002). Similarly, Abudu (1986) found that the reward system in African public organisations was not based on effort but on 'unknown' factors such as ethnic background, age, sex, favouritism, corruption or just a lack of competence. Jackson (2004) adds that high pay differentials among different grades of employees are a disincentive since progression up the ranks is difficult due to factors such as tribalism and corruption. Consistent with Kamoche (2000b), it is possible therefore to conclude that the management of public universities is more geared towards McGregor's Theory X (carrot and stick) model of management while the private universities towards Theory Y (participative/consultative) management style.

9.7 Outcome of organisational commitment and job satisfaction

The fifth objective of the study was to establish the extent to which organisational commitment and job satisfaction influenced employee turnover intentions. The findings from this study are consistent with previous studies which found that turnover intentions were negatively correlated with organisational commitment and

job satisfaction (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Jaros *et al*., 1993; Somers, 1995). The findings of this study showed that affective commitment and intrinsic job satisfaction were the strongest negative predictors of turnover intentions among academic employees. This suggests that academics with strong affective commitment and who were satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their jobs were less likely to quit their universities and vice versa. Further, affective commitment, extrinsic job satisfaction and normative commitment were the strongest negative predictors among administrative employees.

Similar to previous findings (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Lee *et al*., 2001), CC: LALT failed to predict turnover intentions, which again raises the question of the relevance of this sub-dimension of organisational commitment. This is contrary to Gbadamosi, Ndaba and Oni. (2007) who found that turnover intentions was negatively correlated with continuance commitment and concluded that the high costs associated with leaving may develop when there are limited alternative jobs. The study found that normative commitment played an important role in predicting the turnover intentions among administrative employees but not academic employees. Because the skills of administrative employees are more widespread among the population and therefore uncompetitive in the labour market as compared to that of academics, administrative employees may be predisposed to develop strong loyalty to their universities because of the assurance of continued employment. The negative age-turnover intentions relationship suggests that most employees, who are approaching retirement age, are unwilling to start all over again somewhere else considering the time and resources they have invested in their current positions (e.g. promotions, pension plans).

9.8 The unanticipated findings

Several studies have argued for the importance of skills variety, participation in decision making and professional commitment as positive predictors of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and role stressors as negative predictors. However, the results from this study found the opposite of these results. The findings showed unexpected negative correlations between some selected practices (i.e. task variety, professional commitment and participation in decision making) with

continuance commitment. Further, role conflict and role overload were found to be positive predictors of continuance commitment. These results suggest that employees who lack task variety, have no commitment to their professions, do not participate in the decision making process and experience work stress, perceive high costs associated with leaving their universities and vice versa. This is consistent with Cohen (1992) who found that calculative considerations were important in determining the organisational commitment of clerical and administrative staff.

The above findings as measured by the continuance commitment dimension can largely be explained by the lack of alternative employment opportunities in the Kenyan economy as a result of poor economic performance. The aftermath of the post-election violence in early 2008, which resulted in economic and social disruptions, coupled with the global recession, reduced economic growth from 7 per cent in 2007 to 1.7 per cent in 2008. Although the economic grew to 2.5 per cent in 2009 and is expected to improve further to 3.1-3.9 per cent in 2010, this growth rate is still too low to effectively rejuvenate the economy (KIPPRA, 2009). The long-term effects of this decline in the economy has resulted in massive lay-offs, freeze in future employments, stunted growth in the private and manufacturing sectors, and increasing unemployment rates which is currently estimated to stand at 40% (CIA World Factbook, 2008; Republic of Kenya, 2009). As a result, several university graduates and highly skilled employees have been forced to accept unskilled jobs or even to work outside their job specialisation so as to remain gainfully employed and therefore be able to provide for their families (i.e. immediate and extended). This means that people who are already employed would not leave their jobs under these difficult prevailing economic conditions, and instead would prefer to tolerate unpleasant working conditions than to leave their jobs. This is consistent with Gelade *et al.'s* (2006) study which found that employees from less economically developed nations were more likely to accept unfulfilling work conditions due to limited choice in the job market.

Another possible explanation for the high levels of continuance commitment is that most employees, who have taken advantage of benefit packages such as subsidized medical cover, mortgage loans and sponsored training, may not necessarily be satisfied with the benefits or working conditions offered by the employer. However,

the cost of leaving their universities became high because they have to pay back the loans at higher interest rates if they leave or have to pay the employer training costs if they are legally bonded. These costs are often recovered from the employees' pension. The employee therefore weighs the costs to be incurred if they opt to leave their universities.

Additionally, in situations where unemployment is rampant and organisations are increasingly downsizing their operations, survivors of retrenchment are more likely to feel a sense of gratefulness to their employers for being retained. The initial reaction of fear, uncertainty and violation of the psychological contract may turn to a need to prove their worthiness to the organisation. Survivors may react by getting more involved and subconsciously identifying with the organisation thus, creating an emotional attachment to the organisation that may not necessarily be genuine. In recent years, the Kenyan economy has experienced decline due to international competition, shrinking markets, high costs of production, poor infrastructure, post-election violence and high level government corruption. This has led organisations, including public universities, to adopt cost reduction measures, which include retrenchment. Under such circumstances and with high unemployment levels, it is possible that surviving employees are only too grateful to have a job, irrespective of the working conditions and therefore, likely to go an extra mile to show this to the employer. In conclusion, the study has shown that the job and role-related factors were stronger predictors of job satisfaction and organisational commitment for academic employees than for administrative employees. Despite administrative employees being dissatisfied with their working conditions, the regression results showed that continuance commitment was high among this group of employees. The poor economic performance and subsequently, high unemployment rates in Kenya have created high exit barriers for employees who perceive that their skills are not competitive enough in a flooded labour market. In this regard, Swailes (2004) argues that although it is costly for employers to develop employees who subsequently quit, it is more costly to retain employees who develop strong feelings of immobility (continuance commitment). According to Swailes, this in the long term, may involve the cost of managing "trapped" employees into new roles or out of the organisation. Given that employers have no control over external factors such as the labour market

which reinforce perceptions of limited alternative employment opportunities, they can use internal factors in their control such as the provision of interesting and meaningful jobs, better pay, career growth, training, involvement and fairness in the distribution of rewards to enhance their employees' commitment and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER TEN

Conclusion and recommendations

10.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a model representing the common antecedents of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees, the implications of the research findings for practice, the study's limitations and suggestions for future research.

The results of this study have provided support for the applicability of Western theories and approaches to organisational commitment and job satisfaction from a Kenyan perspective. The study examined the effect of employee demographics, job and role-related factors and selected HRM practices on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees in Kenyan universities, and found that employees' commitment and satisfaction was enhanced by positive work practices. In addition, the results showed that employees were willing to endure unpleasant work conditions (e.g. lack of participation, routine jobs and high role stress) because the costs of leaving were too high (continuance commitment), especially considering the poor performance of the Kenyan economy which has rendered attractive suitable jobs almost obsolete.

10.2 Proposed models

A summary of significant predictors of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions derived from the regression analysis (Chapter 8) for the academic and administrative employees is presented in Tables 10.1 and 10.2 below. Presented are the directions of the significant relationships, either positive (+ve) or negative (-ve). These variables were combined to form models of common antecedent variables among academic and administrative employees which showed the factors that influenced multidimensional organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Table 2: Significant predictors of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among administrative employees

	Affective commitment	Normative Commitment	CC (HPS)	CC (LALT)	OC	Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	Turnover Intention
Age	***+ve***			***+ve***	***+ve***		***+ve***	***-ve***
Gender (Male)	***+ve***				***+ve***			
Marital status (Married)			***+ve***		***+ve***			
Job tenure		***+ve***			***+ve***			
Position tenure			***+ve***				***-ve***	
Education		***-ve***	***-ve***	***-ve***	***-ve***			***+ve***
University sector (public)			***-ve***	***-ve***				
Role overload			***+ve***			***-ve***	***-ve***	
Role conflict			***+ve***		***+ve***	***-ve***	***-ve***	***+ve***
Role ambiguity		***-ve***			***-ve***			
Professional commitment	***+ve***	***+ve***		***-ve***		***+ve***	***+ve***	***-ve***
Job autonomy	***+ve***					***+ve***	***+ve***	
Task variety						***+ve***	***+ve***	
Feedback							***+ve***	
Co-worker support								***-ve***
Supervisory support	***+ve***	***+ve***	***+ve***		***+ve***	***+ve***	***+ve***	
Job security			***+ve***	***+ve***	***+ve***			
Promotions		***+ve***	***+ve***		***+ve***		***+ve***	***-ve***
Training and development	***+ve***					***+ve***		
Pay						***+ve***		
Distributive justice	***+ve***	***+ve***	***+ve***		***+ve***	***+ve***	***+ve***	***-ve***
Performance appraisal						***+ve***		
Participation in decision making	***+ve***			***-ve***			***+ve***	
Career development	***+ve***	***+ve***		***+ve***	***+ve***		***+ve***	***-ve***

Table 10.1 indicates that all the demographic variables (i.e. age, gender, marital status, tenure, education and university sector) were significant determinants of multi-dimensional organisational commitment among administrative employees. University sector was a significant predictor of CC: HPS and CC: LALT. The negative relationship suggests that administrative employees from public universities perceived that they had limited employment opportunities. On the other hand, demographic characteristics had no significant on extrinsic job satisfaction. Only age and position tenure were antecedents of intrinsic job satisfaction while age and education predicted turnover intentions. Professional commitment was a significant positive predictor of affective commitment, normative commitment, job satisfaction and a negative predictor of CC: LALT and turnover intentions. Unlike job satisfaction, task variety, feedback and co-worker support had non-significant relations with organisational commitment. Among the HR practices, pay and performance appraisal had non-significant influence on organisational commitment.

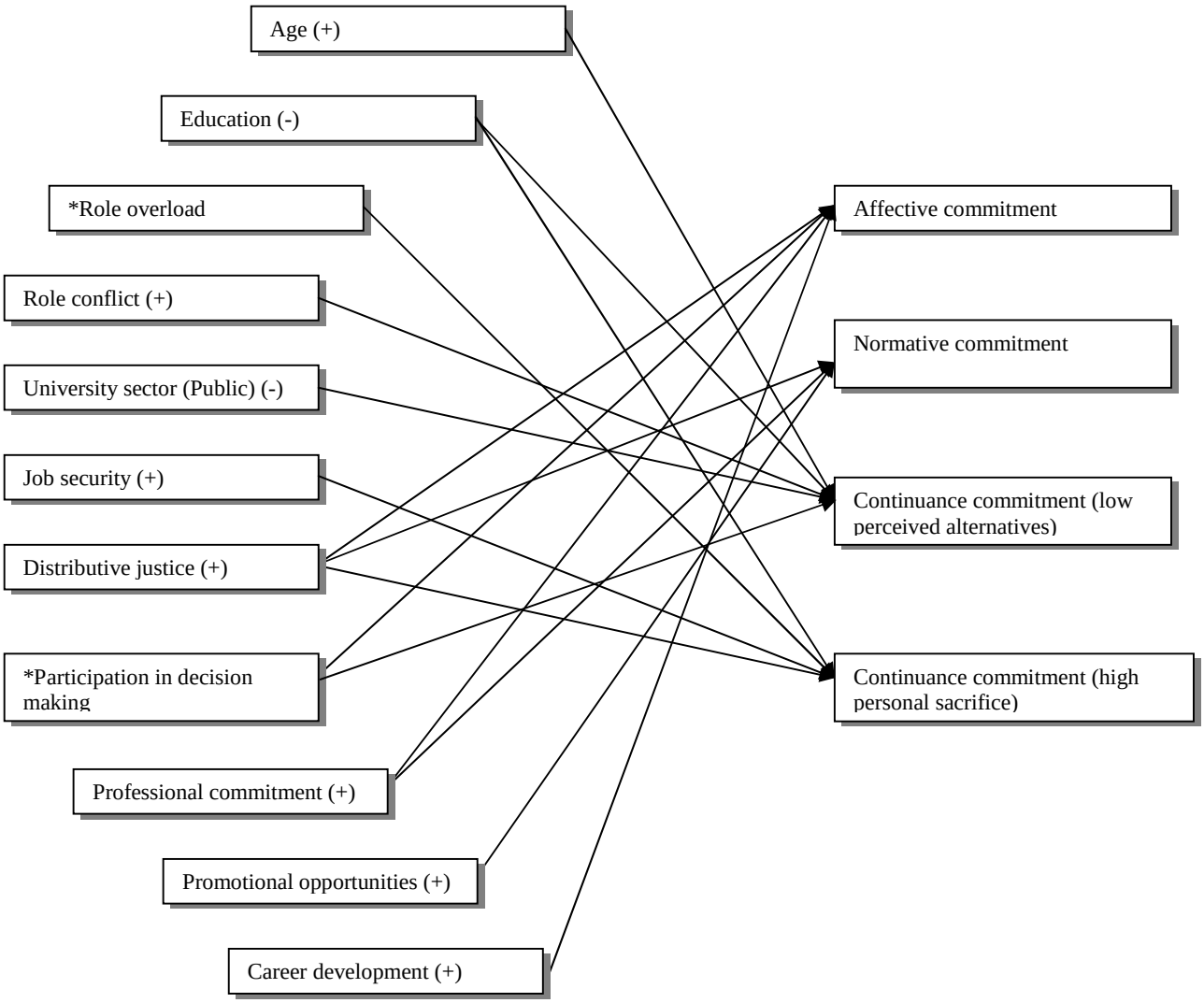
Table 2: Significant predictors of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions among academic employees

	ACS	NCS	CC (HPS)	CC (LALT)	OC	Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	Turnover Intention
Age			*+ve*	*+ve*	*+ve*	*+ve*	*+ve*	*-ve*
Gender (Male)		*-ve*						
Marital status (Married)								
Job tenure								*+ve*
Position tenure		*-ve*					*-ve*	
Education			*-ve*	*-ve*	*-ve*	*-ve*	*-ve*	
University sector (Public)				*-ve*				*+ve*
Role overload			*-ve*			*-ve*	*-ve*	*+ve*
Role conflict				*+ve*				*+ve*
Role ambiguity	*-ve*			*-ve*	*-ve*			*+ve*
Professional commitment	*+ve*	*+ve*	*+ve*		*+ve*	*+ve*	*+ve*	*-ve*
Job autonomy						*+ve*	*+ve*	
Task variety	*+ve*		*-ve*	*-ve*				*-ve*
Feedback						*+ve*		
Co-worker support						*+ve*	*+ve*	
Supervisory support						*+ve*	*+ve*	*-ve*
Job security		*+ve*	*+ve*		*+ve*	*+ve*		*-ve*
Promotions	*+ve*	*+ve*			*+ve*	*+ve*	*+ve*	*-ve*
Training and development							*+ve*	
Pay satisfaction	*+ve*				*+ve*	*+ve*	*+ve*	*-ve*
Distributive justice	*+ve*	*+ve*	*+ve*	*+ve*	*+ve*	*+ve*		
Performance appraisal			*+ve*				*+ve*	
Participation in decision making	*+ve*	*+ve*		*+ve*	*+ve*	*+ve*	*+ve*	*-ve*
Career development	*+ve*						*+ve*	

The summary in Table 10.2 indicates, unlike administrative employees, only age and education had the most influence on organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Unlike organisational commitment, job characteristics had a significant influence on job satisfaction. Professional commitment had a significant, positive influence on organisational commitment and job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Among the HR practices, training and development had non-significant influence on organisational commitment.

Below are the models of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Figure 10.1: Model of common antecedents of organisational commitment among academic and administrative employees



Notes:

1. **<u>*Participation in Decision making</u>** was a negative (-) predictor of CC: LALT for administrative employees and a positive (+) predictor for academic employees.

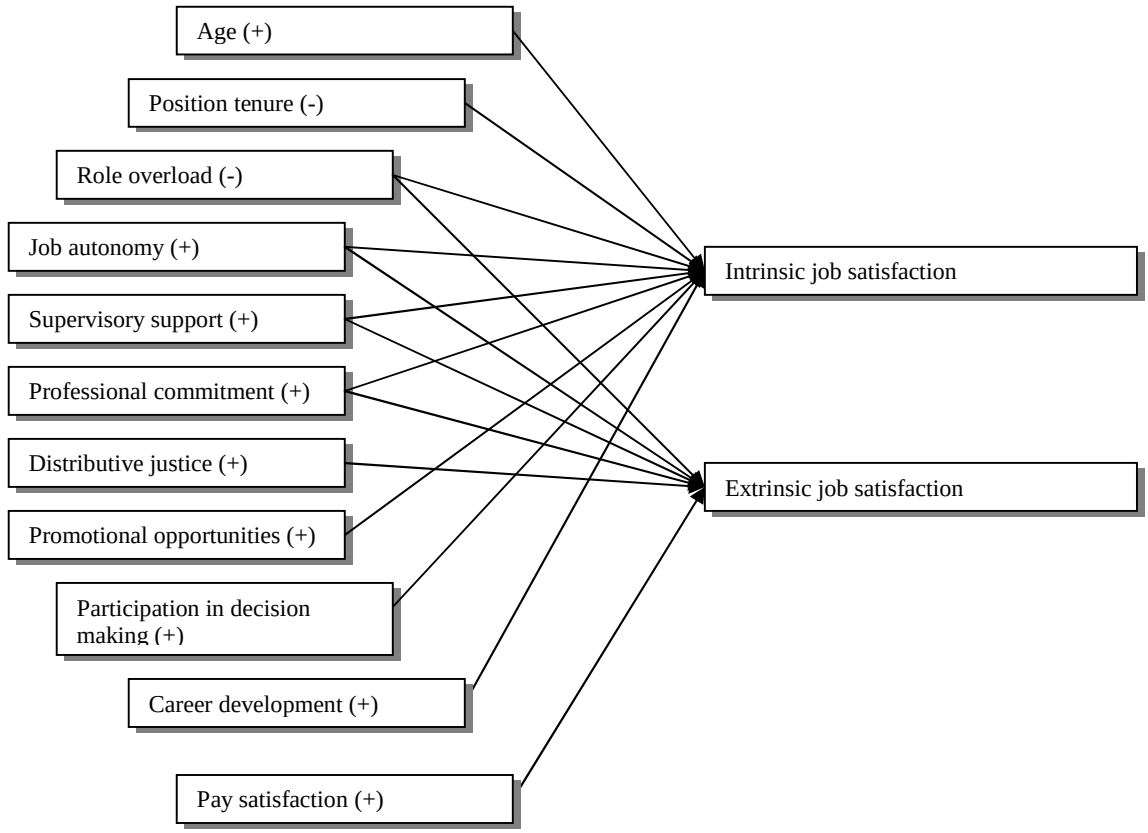
2. **<u>* Role overload</u>** was a negative (-) predictor of CC: HPS for academic employees and positive (+) for administrative employees.

Figure 10.1 shows a model of variables which are common antecedents of organisational commitment among academic and administrative employees in Kenyan universities. Distributive justice was the only variable which positively influenced the three dimensions of organisational commitment, thus stressing the importance of the universities treating their employees fairly.

The model shows that distributive justice, participation in decision making, professional commitment, promotional opportunities and career development were antecedents of affective commitment. These factors positively influenced employees' attachment and sense of belonging to their universities. Distributive justice, professional commitment and promotional opportunities influenced employees' loyalty and obligations to remain in their universities (normative commitment). The antecedents for CC: HPS were education, role overload, job security and distributive justice. In this case, role overload was a negative predictor for academic employees and a positive predictor for administrative employees. Finally, age, education, role conflict, university sector and participation in decision making were antecedents of CC: LALT. Participation in decision making was a positive predictor for academic employees and a negative predictor for administrative employees. This suggests that administrative employees were willing to endure un-enriching work conditions due to limited alternative employment opportunities.

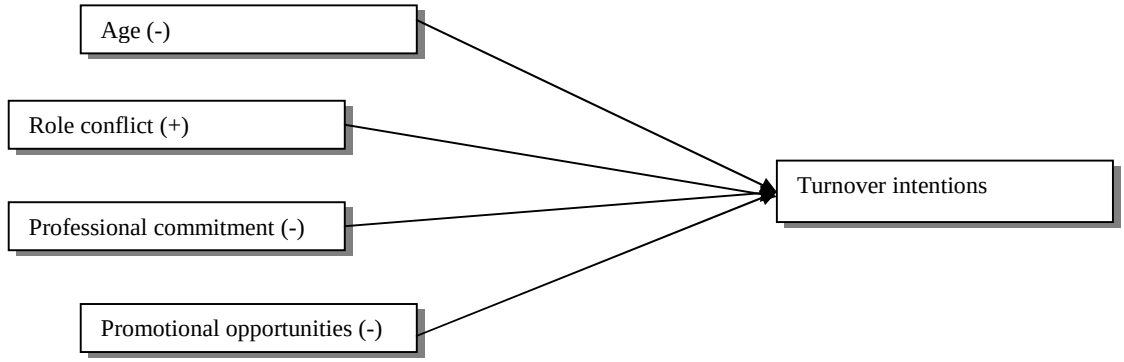
The model shows that employees from public universities perceived that they had fewer alternative employment opportunities, unlike employees from private universities. According to Mwiria and Ngethe (2007) public universities were subjected to political patronage which resulted in overstaffing of mainly unqualified employees at the lower levels. Consequently, these employees feel that they do not have competitive skills to compete in a flooded labour market. Private universities, on the other, are business entities which adhere to strict recruitment and selection processes devoid of ethnic and political manipulation.

Figure 10.2: Model of common antecedents of job satisfaction among academic and administrative employees



The model in Figure 10.2 shows that age, position tenure, role overload, job autonomy, supervisory support, professional commitment, promotional opportunities, participation in decision making and career development influenced employees' intrinsic satisfaction. Employees' satisfaction with the extrinsic aspects of their jobs was positively influenced by job autonomy, supervisory support, professional commitment, distributive justice and satisfaction with pay, and negatively influenced by role overload.

Figure 10.3: Model of common antecedents of turnover intentions among academic and administrative employees



The model in Figure 10.3 shows that age, role conflict, professional commitment and promotional opportunities influenced intentions to quit the university for both academic and administrative employees.

10.3 Implications for human resource management policy in Kenyan universities

Results reported in the current study have several policy and practical implications for Kenyan universities. By empirically testing the extent to which selected work-related factors affected organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions, the present study identified several HR practices which universities can adopt to improve the commitment and retention of their employees. With the current commercialisation of education and the expansionist programmes that universities, especially public universities are embarking on, a committed and highly skilled workforce is fundamental in enabling the universities to meet their objectives.

Management can apply the findings of this study in several areas of human resource management policy and practice. The strongest negative predictor of organisational commitment and job satisfaction is labour turnover or *turnover intention*, and this was confirmed in this study (see Chapter 8, Section 8.3). The decision to remain with a firm is largely determined by an employees' level of commitment to the firm. Allen and Meyer (1990) observe that an individual's commitment to stay with a firm is influenced by an organisation's management practices including HRM. Retention can

be improved by introducing and adopting HRM practices that enhance employee commitment and performance. These policies are discussed below.

A policy and practical area where these findings can be applied is *pay*. Rewards represent an exchange relationship between an employer and employee, such that employees who are dissatisfied with their pay lower their commitment to their employers and become dissatisfied with their jobs. Data from this study showed that employees from public universities were more dissatisfied with their pay than employees from private universities (See Chapter 7, Section 7.4.2.1 and Chapter 8). It is therefore suggested that the management of public universities endeavour to build a reward package that is externally competitive but also motivates faculty through recognition and other non-financial rewards (Brown and Sargeant, 2007). With the current global economic climate, the reality is that most universities (both public and private), will continue to face financial challenges which means that paying competitively will be a challenge. Therefore, in order to enhance employees' commitment and job satisfaction, universities should endeavour to include policies that value employee's knowledge and reward them according to how they apply this knowledge and competencies to productive activities that are consistent with the universities' objectives (Kamoche *et al*., 2004). Competence pay, skills-based pay and knowledge-based pay are examples of practices that can enhance commitment. These practices may offer employees some safeguards against the more subjective approaches that are prone to ethnic and political manipulation.

As opposed to the current rigid system where salaries are pegged to job grades, the universities, especially public universities, should introduce systems such as performance-related pay/merit pay that discriminate employees fairly, and directly relate their efforts to their contributions. Tetty (2006) advocates this system of differential rewards as a way of attracting and retaining employees, considering high internal and external brain drain which is eroding expertise in most African universities. To ensure fairness in the performance-related pay, the universities should safeguard against subjective appraisals where the appraisers may give biased judgements (Petrescu and Simmons, 2008) or be subjected to ethnic and political manipulations (Kamoche *et al*., 2004).

The importance of *distributive justice* is another policy area that universities should consider. The analysis has confirmed that employees' perception of fairness or justice is a positive predictor of organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Therefore, in order to enhance employee commitment and job satisfaction, universities should offer fair compensation to employees based on their contributions to the operations of their universities. This may translate to mean not only better pay and fringe benefits for all its employees, but also fairness in the distribution of other rewards such as opportunities for training and promotions.

Another lesson for universities is the area of *participation in decision making* and information sharing practices. Participation offers employees various levels of influence in the decision making process which can range from formally established consultative committees to development of good relations with managers or supervisors at an informal level. However, when employees are sidelined from the decision making process, their commitment and job satisfaction decline. The data analysis and interviews confirmed that employees from public universities were dissatisfied with the decision making process. Public universities should therefore, consider formulating communication policies that are open and integrated with other HR policies, and have a "listening" hierarchy that allow employees the opportunity to offer ideas and suggestions (Mulinge, 1998). Empowering and providing employees with the opportunities to participate in formulating goals and decisions concerning their jobs, and the overall management of their universities, is likely to have a positive effect on their commitment and satisfaction.

Provision of adequate *training and development opportunities* is an indication of the university's commitment to its human resources resulting in strong psychological bonding and a willingness to contribute more to the university's success. However, the results have shown that training practices in public universities are quite problematic. It is therefore, suggested that the management of public universities develop or revise their training policies which guide their training and development activities, and therefore enable the university to identify skills that may be needed for it to respond to its environment. Well-designed training policies will also put an end to the current practice whereby non-teaching employees are enrolling for any courses available to them with the end goal of getting promoted. In relation to academics, it is

suggested that university management and deans systematically develop training and development systems to ensure that their members of staff attain and maintain appropriate levels of skills related to the basics of teaching, research, and service (Brown and Sargeant, 2007). By ensuring that faculty have the necessary knowledge and communication skills required for their basic tasks of teaching, research, and service, the university will ensure that their programmes are well-planned and well-designed.

Job security is another policy area that universities should consider. The universities should guarantee their employees some measure of job security, especially in relation to budgetary pressures from the government. This will remove the fear of unexpected layoffs, and in return, encourage employees to get more involved in accomplishing their tasks, and thus enhance their commitment and job satisfaction. In the event that public universities are pressurised by the government to retrench some of their employees, as was the case in 2000/2001, a more transparent method, devoid of unfair practices should be devised to select the retrenchees. Similarly, the universities' disciplinary procedures should be safeguarded as much as possible, against unfair practices such as nepotism, tribalism and favouritism.

Performance management is one of the most problematic HRM activities in public universities and this was confirmed by the study (See Chapter 7, Section 7.4.2.1). Public universities should overhaul the current performance appraisal system which is only used to monitor new employees for the purpose of confirming them as permanent employees, and ignoring other employees. Since they influence decisions related to training, career development, promotions, rewards and redundancy, perceptions of fairness are a necessary condition. University management should, therefore, develop clear performance indicators and objectives which are related to employees' job responsibilities and performance targets to ensure the accuracy of assessments and therefore guarantee fairness in the process. There is also a need to train the appraisers and educate employees on the importance of performance appraisals, and therefore eliminate the panic that grips employees every time the exercise is carried out, as employees assume that it is related to retrenchment.

Promotion procedures and the presence of promotional opportunities and career paths

have a positive relationship with organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Snell and Dean, 1992; Iles *et al.*, 1990) and this study shows that the same is true in the Kenyan context. Universities should promote internal labour market policy which outlines progression from entry point and development as one acquires skills and knowledge in their working life. This calls for the universities to increase the number of non-entry positions (Mulinge and Mueller, 1998). Employees who work in organisations with internal labour market policies are likely to exhibit greater loyalty and attachment to the organisation. However, these internal labour market policies should not be implemented at the expense of fresh talent that may be required by the universities. The study also suggests that public universities should establish a clear system of promotions that is based on performance and merit, and thereby cushion the promotion process against unfair practices such as favouritism or ethnicity (Kamoche *et al*., 2004; Lambert and Paoline, 2008). For academics, universities have to give serious consideration to the weighting of teaching vis-à-vis research and other services such as supervision, administration among others, in the promotion process. This is particularly important for academics in public universities who are shouldering large teaching responsibilities.

In relation to role stressors, the universities should avoid exposing their employees to frustrating work situations such as unclear job information, unclear reporting structures and heavy workload. This study found that role stressors had a negative influence on affective and normative commitment and job satisfaction, and a positive influence on continuance commitment. Universities should implement strategies such as regular and extensive communication between employees and heads of departments so that potential role conflict, overload and ambiguity can be addressed (Schulz and Auld, 2006; Tarafdar, Tu, Ragu-Nathan and Ragu-Nathan, 2007). To avoid negative role stress, management should focus on job aspects that are positive and challenging, for example, structure jobs to allow for greater amounts of responsibilities, with greater scope and autonomy, use of clear job descriptions and performance appraisal systems that are aligned closely with job analysis information (Haar, 2006). In addition, universities should also insist on an optimal level of student intake to avoid excessive workload on their employees and compromising the integrity of their programmes.

The study has confirmed that workers who perceive the university as providing them with interesting and meaningful jobs, and a friendly and supportive environment are likely to have high levels of commitment, are more satisfied with their jobs and turnover less (Rogers, Clow and Kash, 1994). HR managers should therefore implement job redesign programmes involving job enlargement, job enrichment and job rotation in order to develop more meaningful, challenging and interesting jobs, thereby increasing the level of intrinsic returns. To minimise role ambiguity, public universities should provide their employees with clearly written job descriptions stating what actions can and cannot be taken.

The results have shown the existence of status differentiation among academic and administrative employees in public universities (See Chapter 9, Section 9.5). University management should therefore endeavour to breakdown the artificial barriers between academic and administrative employees, by encouraging cooperation and teamwork among the employees for the common good of the university.

10.4. Contribution to knowledge

This study has contributed to HRM knowledge in several ways. Firstly, the present study adds to academic knowledge by confirming the applicability of multidimensional organisational commitment to a non-Western cultural context and Kenya in particular.

Secondly, the study provides evidence that popular constructs from Western/North American management literature should not be automatically dismissed as being culture bound. The study has shown that most of the western constructs used in this study have similar meanings in the Kenyan cultural context as in the western contexts. The findings of this study have shown that work-related attitudes and practices such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment are important to employees irrespective of their cultural contexts.

Finally, the current study further adds to the body of knowledge by examining the influences of numerous demographic characteristics, HR practices and work-related factors on three central occupational attitudes among Kenyan university employees,

namely organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions, which have rarely been examined in prior research in a single study. The study has shown that employees' personal characteristics had minimal statistical significance on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. This means that university managers should be able to focus on HRM practices and work-related factors, rather than employee variables in order to enhance desirable work attitudes.

10.5 Limitations of the study

As with other studies, this study had several limitations which should be noted. Firstly, the data collection period coincided with failed salary negotiations between UASU and the government, culminating in a strike which led to a three-month closure of all public universities, with the exception of University of Nairobi. The strike only ended when the government ordered the Vice Chancellors to sack all participating lecturers and not to pay salaries for the duration of the strike. There was a lot of discontent during this period which may have had a negative influence on their responses. Despite these problems, the independent samples t-tests in Chapters Seven showed that academics had higher mean scores in most of the variables of the study than the administrative employees. The standardised Beta coefficients of most of the independent variables (Chapter Eight) were much higher for academics than for administrative employees. Further, independent samples t-tests (Chapter Seven) showed that the mean scores for most of the dependent and independent variables were significantly higher for employees from private universities than for public universities. It is possible that, without the strike, the occupational and sector differences might not have been so substantial. However, since this was a cross-sectional research design (i.e. data was collected at one point in time), the study was not able to investigate the long term impact of the strike on the academics organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intent to quit. A longitudinal study would have revealed whether there were any changes in commitment and job satisfaction over a period of time.

Secondly, the study used a self-report instrument to collect information about the dependent and independent variables. However, these types of survey instruments are

most susceptible to common method variance bias (Malhotra, Kim and Patil, 2006; Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesan and Moorman, 2008). The likely sources of common method variance (CMV) in this study are social desirability and consistency motif. Since the researcher was a university employee and the respondents were identified through their HR departments, the possibility of social desirability (i.e. providing respectable rather than true responses) was a real problem. Consistency motif may have arisen whereby respondents try to maintain consistency in their responses to similar question, thus producing relationships that would otherwise not exist at the same level in real life settings (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff, 2003). In order to determine the presence of CMV in this study, a Harman's one-factor test was performed following the approach outlined by previous researchers (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986; Mattila and Enz, 2002; Podsakoff *et al*., 2003). All the questionnaire items were entered in principal component factor analysis using SPSS. According to this procedure, CMV bias is present if a single factor or one "general" factor accounts for more than 50% of the covariance among the variables (Mattila and Enz, 2002). The analysis revealed a 24-factor structure with the highest variance accounting for only 23% of the variance out of a cumulative variance of 64.6%, which showed that CMV bias was not a big problem. In addition, the use of multiple respondents (i.e. academics and administrators in different levels of management) further reduced the likelihood of CMV bias (Mattila and Enz, 2002; Podsakoff *et al*., 2003).

Thirdly, the surveyed employees were from one sector, i.e. higher education. Therefore, the findings of this study cannot necessarily be generalised to other sectors of the economy such as the manufacturing, banking, health services or the civil service.

Finally, due to time and cost constraints, the researcher was not able to carry out research in a different country (e.g. U. K.), thus limiting the study to a single culture. It was, therefore, only possible to infer cross-cultural differences, and not to make direct cross-cultural comparisons.

10.6 Areas for further research

While the objectives of this study were successfully accomplished, several areas remain unclear and require to be addressed by future research. First, this study focused only on the concept of organisational commitment but determining commitment to an organisation may be difficult as employees may be committed to different foci other than the organisation, for instance, their own workgroups, departments, supervisors, unions, occupations or professions. The concept of multiple and even conflicting commitments is more plausible than the concept of single commitment to the organisation. Future research, therefore, should consider the effect of loyalty to multiple entities on overall organisational commitment.

Secondly, this study confined itself to selected public and private universities in Kenya. With the re-establishment of the East African Community (EAC), future research should be extended to other universities in the EAC. Studies should also be extended to other sectors such as the public sector especially now that it is beginning to adopt an enterprise and business culture which has always been associated with the private sector.

Thirdly, future studies should consider the inclusion of variables such as culture, ethnicity, leadership and trust-in-management as independent variables. The inclusion of such variables would further enhance our understanding of the factors influencing commitment in a non-Western context. Further, in order to make direct cross-cultural comparisons, future studies should consider gathering data from more than one culture (i.e. either Western or non-Western).

Lastly, in light of the weak correlations that CC: LALT had with the other commitment dimensions and the independent variables, future research studies should determine the role of this dimension of commitment in determining employees' commitment to an organisation. This dimension has already raised concern among some researchers who have suggested that the dimension should be dropped (Lee *et al.*, 2001; Powell and Meyer, 2004; Jaros, 2007). Since perceptions of lack of alternatives are likely not to constitute a sunk cost, it is possible that future studies may consider this construct as an antecedent of organisational commitment instead.

10.7 Concluding observations

a. Status of higher education in Kenya

Universities in Kenya are expected to make contributions to national development through the training and development of human resources in various professions for the labour market. This is a costly endeavour which the government must be prepared to support through adequate funding. However, the reality is that the government is unable to provide additional funding to the universities. In addition, unplanned increase in student population and creation of more public universities over the last two decades without commensurate increase in funds, have led to extreme pressure on the human and physical resources in ways that have made it difficult for these universities to maintain respectable levels of performance in relation to their core mandates of teaching and research. Due to these challenges, public universities have been faced with the challenging task of motivating their employees through provision of attractive working conditions and competitive remuneration. In addition, they have had to face the reality of their employees, whom they have invested heavily to train, seeking alternative, more competitive opportunities in the private sector or abroad (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). These unfavourable working conditions have jeopardised the loyalty of the academic and administrative employees towards their universities as they increasingly engage in moonlighting activities in order to supplement their earnings.

Against the backdrop of reduced government budgetary allocation, public universities have been forced to embrace the concept of the "entrepreneurial" university by marketing what they know best, namely, teaching, research and service in order to supplement their budgetary deficits (Kiambi, 2004). Consequently, Kenyan universities are in a 'massification race' and competing to acquire middle level colleges in the pretext of meeting higher education demands and indiscriminately opening campuses in remote parts of the country with inadequate physical and human resources, with an aim of attracting many Kenyans who are desperate for a university education (Abagi, 2007). In order to admit more students under the self-sponsored programmes, universities have been forced to modify their entry requirements resulting in the dilution of the quality of education (Mutula, 2002; Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). This can be seen in the high failure rates among parallel students in

programmes such as medicine, engineering, commerce, actuarial science among others.

Consequently, these universities have recruited more students than the available human and physical resources can handle and in some cases, have developed courses they are poorly equipped to teach effectively, inevitably lowering academic standards (Mwiria and Ngethe, 2007). These self-sponsored programmes have highlighted the inequality among Kenyans as the ability to pay fees becomes the main criterion for accessing university education. Similarly, inequalities exist among academic employees who teach the self-sponsored programmes and those who don't, such that some lecturers earn more than triple their monthly salary (Mutula, 2002). This discrepancy is especially, wider among faculties with popular programmes such as law, commerce, MBA and medicine as compared to arts-based courses. Discrepancies also exist among universities in urban areas as compared to those in the rural areas.

The business-based approach of the universities has had negative consequences for the universities autonomy. As they develop products to meet the consumers need, public universities have had to become more businesslike and less concerned with the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake. According to Mwiria and Ngethe (2007) academics have had to cede some of their autonomy to the market, as they can no longer sincerely and effectively defend the doctrine of 'academic freedom' as the basis of determining what to teach and research. Regular students' freedom to disagree with their universities authorities have been affected by the presence of 'private' fee-paying students while universities have had to become more accountable to their stakeholders.

Despite the challenges that they are facing, Kenyan public universities should ensure that their academic integrity is not compromised by pressure to increase enrolments for political reasons or commodify knowledge for financial gain. Universities should develop more collaborative partnerships with the public and private sector and international bodies with the aim of mobilising resources. The responsibility of revitalising higher education does not lie with the universities alone but requires the support of the Kenyan government, private sector and international community, because they all stand to gain from their research and the development of adequate

human resources. There is an urgent need to develop a higher education system where quality and excellence, equity and responsiveness, governance and management are critical. Stakeholders in the higher education system should realise that for posterity "expansion for its own sake or for an extra coin won't do" (Abagi, 2007).

b. Multi-dimensionality of organisational commitment

The results of this study have confirmed the view that organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct consisting of affective, normative and continuance commitment (see Chapter 7, Section 7.3 and Chapter 9, Section 9.2.1). Consistent with previous studies (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Hackett *et al*., 1994; Carson and Carson, 2002), this study found that, with the exception of CC: LALT, affective commitment, normative commitment and CC: HPS had moderately high correlations. These correlations may be attributed to the Kenyan culture which is predominantly collectivist in nature, meaning that loyalty to the group or organisation is highly emphasised. In this regard, Meyer *et al*. (2002) suggested that the difference between obligation and desire may be less distinct in non-Western cultures resulting in high correlations between affective and normative commitment. Further, Cheng and Stockdale (2003) report that since most people in collectivist societies are taught the value of loyalty (resulting in high normative commitment) and are aware of the sacrifices that have to be incurred (e.g. as the financial provider to the immediate and extended family) should one decide to leave the organisation (resulting in high CC: HPS), employees may internalise commitment to the organisation as reflecting their own values (resulting in high affective commitment).

The high correlation among these commitment components suggests that employees in Kenyan universities who are emotionally attached to their universities, also feel obligated to remain in their universities and believe that they stand to lose a great deal if they leave their universities. This implies that increasing one of the commitment components will be associated with the increase of the other two components. The universities HR practitioners should therefore put in place measures to develop any of the commitment components thus resulting in increased levels of overall organisational commitment.

Another possible explanation for the high correlation among the commitment components is that, in situations where alternative jobs are limited as is the case in most developing countries and Kenya in particular, employees are only too grateful to be retained by an employer and a commitment which may have developed as a result of fear of lost benefits, evolves into an emotional attachment and loyalty to the employer. This is even more likely where the organisation has downsized and laid off employees. The survivors compensate by sub-consciously identifying with the organisation and verbalizing their gratefulness for being retained.

On the other hand, the correlation between CC: LALT and the other dimensions of organisational commitment has been quite low, bringing into question the relevance of this construct as a dimension of organisational commitment. Because of these poor correlations, Ko *et al*. (1997) concluded from their study that the lack of employment alternatives was not part of commitment, but a determinant of commitment, and suggested that this dimension should be eliminated from the continuance commitment measures, and instead be considered as an antecedent of organisational commitment.

In conclusion, there is need for future studies to examine how the three components of commitment relate to one another and whether there is need to conceptualise commitment as a single construct or a multidimensional construct in a non-Western context.

c. Cross-cultural validity of organisational commitment and job satisfaction

Although the Kenyan data may not fully support the multi-dimensionality of the commitment concept, the research does indeed confirm that the concept itself is valid in the Kenyan context. The findings from this study have shown that positive work practices as predictors of organisational commitment and job satisfaction transcend cultural boundaries and apply in the West as well as in the East. The study has shown that the factors influencing job satisfaction and organisational commitment in Kenya are largely consistent with what has been found in studies from Western countries. Such consistency suggests that organisations in developed and developing countries are quite similar in relation to the factors that motivate their employees, and therefore points at the generalisability of the theories of job satisfaction and organisational

commitment which were developed and tested in Western contexts to the Kenyan context (Mulinge, 1998). This is supported by Cohen (2003) who, from a reviewed 18 organisational commitment studies from non-Western countries, did not find any major differences between American employees' organisational commitment and that of employees from other nationalities. Similarly, Sommer, Bae and Luthans (1996) in their study of 1192 employees from Korean firms, found that their results were consistent with those found in American studies, since all antecedents (age, education, position, organisation and job tenure, size, organisational structure and organisational climate) with the exception of management style, had significant correlations with Koreans' organisational commitment. Sommers *et al*. concluded that popular work practices originating from America should not be automatically dismissed as culture-bound.

Despite the cultural differences between the West and non-Western contexts, the applicability of these Western theories to the Kenyan context may be attributed to several conflicting forces which have played a role in shaping its management systems. The population of this study, that is, employees in Kenyan universities, have been exposed to western values in a number of ways thus, enhancing the applicability of these Western theories in a Kenyan context. Firstly, the British colonisation of Kenya and subsequent introduction of bureaucratic hierarchies and Western values, through formal western education, considerably transformed the African cultural beliefs and attitudes towards paid labour (Mulinge, 1998; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005). During early colonial days, the notion of work for wages, and subsequently loyalty to employers, was alien to Africans and this was made worse by extremely low wages, forceful tactics used by the colonisers to compel the African to work, manipulation of African access to land which forced them to work for someone else and cultural barriers such as, reluctance to severe family ties and fear of illness or death in urban areas (Mulinge, 1998; Jackson, 2004). However, the advent of western education and the spread of monetary rewards transformed these cultural barriers to paid labour, and enhanced employees' loyalty to their organisations. Secondly, the modelling of Kenya's education system to replicate the British education system (i.e. from pre-independence until two decades ago) and later the American education system, inculcated western values and perceptions in educated Kenyans. Further, the models of Western management styles have been transferred to the Kenyan context through

managers and academics who have studied in universities in the West. Consequently, employees working in these universities, just like their counterparts in the West, have been socialised through the education system in terms of what their job expectations and values are, work attitudes and behaviours.

The results of this study have also helped to dispute the long held belief by some scholars (Kiggundu, 1989; Waweru, 1984; Blunt and Jones, 1992; Taylor, 1992) that African organisations are managerially impoverished in terms of narrowly defined jobs, decision making which is limited to senior executives, reactive management styles indicating lack of planning and lack of intrinsic motivation among African workers. Some of these scholars have claimed that the typical African worker is motivated by material things, derives no satisfaction from their job (Blunt and Jones, 1992), and is passive and reactive to their tasks. Contrary to these studies, the present study has shown that Kenyan employees just like their Western counterparts, desire to work in institutions that have well established HR systems and positive work practices.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: MONTHLY SALARIES FOR ACADEMIC AND ADMINISTRATIVE EMPLOYEES

The pay structures of the public universities and CUEA. (The pay structure for Daystar and Baraton Universities were unavailable).

1. **Comparison of pay structure of middle management employees from public universities and CUEA.**

i. Salaries for middle management employees at CUEA

Grade	Min	Max
M7	19,472	28,007
M8	23,149	31,073
M9	26,149	34,073
M10	28,599	36,523
M11	31,542	40,082
M12	36,962	47,266

ii. Salaries for middle management employees in public universities

	July, 1996		November, 1997		June, 2007	
Grade	**Min**	**Max**	**Min**	**Max**	**Min**	**Max**
A	5265	6855	7280	9485	12000	16800
B	6475	8605	8955	11865	13600	19040
C	7855	9355	10845	12885	15600	21840
D	8855	11835	12205	16265	18000	25200
E	10845	13825	14945	19085	20800	29120
F	12825	15135	17675	20930	26229	33957

Note: Pay in Kenya shillings (Kshs); 1USD = Kshs 79

The pay structures indicate that middle level management employees from Catholic universities enjoy a better pay than their counterparts from public universities.

2. Comparison of pay structure of senior management employees and academics from public universities and CUEA.

iii. Salaries for academics and senior management employees at CUEA

Grade	Academic and senior administrative staff	Min	Max
Level 13	Tutorial Fellow and Equivalents	43,259	64,088
Level 14	Assistant Lecturer and Equivalents	43,259	64,088
Level 15	Lecturer and Equivalents	53,053	74,499
Level 16	Senior Lecturer and Equivalents	65,867	91,336
Level 17	Associate Professors and Equivalents	82,274	114,199
Level 18	Professors and Equivalents	94,404	129,519

iv. Salaries for academics and senior management employees in public universities

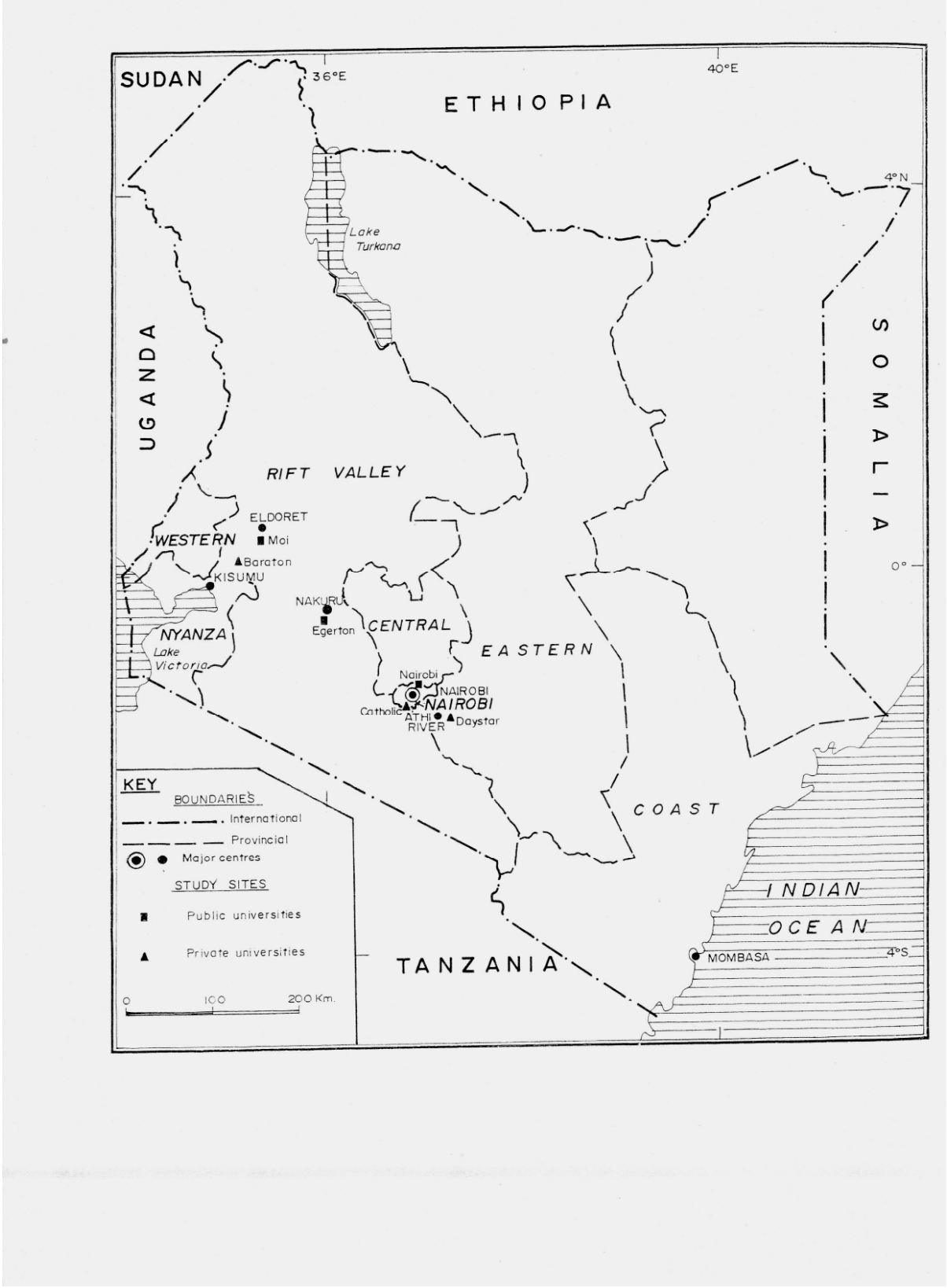
	July, 1996		November, 1997		*June, 2007 (Academic employees)		*June, 2007 (Senior Administrative employees)	
Grade	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max
11	10435	14285	14015	19055	38400	57600	-	-
12	12925	17725	17185	23580	50400	75600	52931	70769
13	15985	21625	21440	28820	57600	86400	60213	80415
14	20140	24455	26855	33380	72000	108000	77867	100817
15	22705	28435	31060	39970	96000	144000	96000	144000
16	26115	33075	36730	46450	200980	252800	-	-
17	27275	34235	38350	48170	208015	291000	-	-
18	33655	37135	47360	52280	260000	460000	-	-

Notes: Grades 11 = Assistant lecturers; **12** = Lecturers and Equivalent; **13** = Senior Lecturers and equivalent**; 14** = Associate professor and equivalent; **15** = professor and equivalent; **16** = Campus principals; **17** = Deputy vice chancellors and constituent college principals; **18** = Vice chancellors

** From 2007, the pubic universities de-linked the salaries of senior administrators who were in academic equivalent grades, resulting in administrators earning less than their academic colleagues.*

The salary structures show that, with the exception of professors and equivalents, academics and senior administrative employees from Catholic University earned higher pay than their colleagues in the public universities. However, top managers from public universities earn much higher pay than they did a decade ago.

APPENDIX B: LOCATION OF THE UNIVERSITIES IN THIS STUDY



APPENDIX C: RESEARCH PERMIT

CONDITIONS

1. You must report to the District Commissioner and the District Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit.
2. Government Officers will not be interviewed without prior appointment.
3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.
5. You are required to submit at least two(2)/four(4) bound copies of your final report for Kenyans and non-Kenyans respectively.
6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

RESEARCH CLEARANCE PERMIT

PAGE 2

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:

Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Miss..DINAH JERUTO KIPKEBUT

of (Address)10 HALLINWICK COURT WOOD HOUSE ROAD LONDON N12

has been permitted to conduct research in ELDORET,NAKURU&NAIROBI Location, UASINGISHU,NAKURU&NAIROBI District, RIFTVALLEY & NAIROBI Province,

on the topicORGANISATIONALCOMMITMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN KENYA : ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

for a period ending 31ST MARCH, 2007

Applicant's Signature

PAGE 3

Research Permit NoMOST13/001/36c 626

Date of issue 11-10-06

Fee received KSHS 1000

P.O. ADEWA

Permanent Secretary
Ministry of
Science and Technology

APPENDIX D: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION AND QUESTIONNAIRE

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Dear Sir/Madam,

REF: EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE

I am an employee of Egerton University currently pursuing Ph. D studies at Middlesex University, Business School in the United Kingdom. The title of my study is "**Organisational commitment among employees in institutions of higher learning in Kenya: the case of academic and non-academic staff".** A questionnaire has been developed addressing several factors related to your job, your commitment to your profession and your university's Human Resource/Personnel practices which may have an impact on your attachment to your institution. Based on your work experience and knowledge, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with a given statement on the space provided. The questions have been simplified and therefore should not take more than 30 minutes to complete.

Your university has been selected to participate in this study and consequently, you have been selected as a respondent through a random sample of employees from your university. Even if you feel that some of the items may not directly apply to your work experiences, please do not ignore them. Your answers are essential in building an accurate picture of the issues that are important in improving employees' commitment to their respective universities.

I also wish to assure you that the information you provide will only be used for academic purposes and will be treated with strict **CONFIDENTIALITY**. You can be assured that no one will ever know how you responded to the questions. Please do not write your name anywhere in this questionnaire.

I hope you find completing this questionnaire enjoyable and thank you taking the time complete it. If you have any queries or would like further information about this study, please do not hesitate to contact me on the address below.

Thank you for your assistance,

Dinah J. Kipkebut (Mrs)

Egerton University
P.O. Box 536
Njoro
Email: jerutod@yahoo.com or D.Kipkebut@mdx.ac.uk

SECTION ONE

Please complete the following section which asks for about you and your work.

1. **Name of your university**:_____

2. **Discipline** *(Teaching staff only):*_____

3. **Non - Teaching staff** *(please tick)*: Middle Management ☐

   Senior Management ☐ Technical staff ☐

4. **Occupation** *(Please tick)*: Academic staff ☐ or Non-Academic staff ☐

5. **Gender** *(Please tick)*: Male ☐ Female ☐

6. **Age:** Below 30 ☐ 30 – 39 ☐ 40 – 49 ☐ 50 and above ☐

7. **Marital status:** Single ☐ Married ☐ Other *(Please specify)*:_____

8. **Job title** *(Please state)*: _____

9. **How many years of university service do you have?** 0 - 4 ☐

   5 - 10 ☐ 11 – 15 ☐ 16 and above ☐

10. **How many years have you held your current position?** Below 1 year ☐

    1 – 4 ☐ 5 – 10 ☐ 11 and above ☐

11. **Please select the highest educational qualification you hold from below:**

    Certificate or equivalent ☐

    Diploma or equivalent ☐

    Bachelor's degree or equivalent ☐

    Masters ☐

    Ph.D ☐

    Ph. D (Ongoing studies) ☐

    Others (Please specify):_____

12. **Please specify if you are involved in any income generating activities such as**:

    Part time lecturing *(e.g. other institutions or parallel programmes)* ☐

    Consultancies ☐ Privately run business ☐

    Other *(Please specify)*:_____

SECTION TWO

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by marking the appropriate boxes. Use the scales as follows:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this university	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I really enjoy telling people what a wonderful place my university is	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I always feel as if this university's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I feel a lot of emotional attachment to my university	1	1	3	4	5
5.	My university has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my university	1	2	3	4	5
7.	It would be very hard for me to leave my university right now, even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I wanted to leave my university now	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Right now, staying with my university is a matter of necessity	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving my job in this university	1	2	3	4	5
11.	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this university would be the scarcity of available alternatives	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Leaving this university would require considerable personal sacrifice because another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here (e.g. salary, pension, promotional opportunities, geographical location, etc)	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I would not leave working for my university right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave working in my university right now	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I do not feel any sense of obligation to remain with my current employer	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I owe a great deal of loyalty to my university considering all it has done for me (e.g. training, medical assistance, etc)	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I would feel guilty if I left my university right now	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

18.	I believe that this university deserves my loyalty	1 2 3 4 5
19.	Deciding to be at member of the profession/line of work that I am in was a definite mistake on my part	1 2 3 4 5
20.	I am proud to be associated with the profession that I am in	1 2 3 4 5
21.	I have invested too much, e.g. education, time, personal effort, in my profession to consider changing it now	1 2 3 4 5
22.	I will have many career options if decide to change professions now	1 2 3 4 5

SECTION THREE

Please indicate the extent to which you are satisfied or dissatisfied with the following aspects of your job by <u>marking</u> the appropriate box. <u>Kindly answer all the statements.</u> Use the scales as shown below:

1	2	3	4	5
Extremely Dissatisfied	**Dissatisfied**	**Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied**	**Satisfied**	**Extremely Satisfied**

1.	The physical work conditions	1 2 3 4 5
2.	The freedom to choose your own method of working	1 2 3 4 5
3.	Your fellow workers	1 2 3 4 5
4.	The recognition you get for good work	1 2 3 4 5
5.	Your immediate boss	1 2 3 4 5
6.	The amount of responsibility you are given	1 2 3 4 5
7.	Your rate of pay	1 2 3 4 5
8.	The opportunity to use your abilities	1 2 3 4 5
9.	Industrial relations (union relationship) between the management and workers in your university	1 2 3 4 5
10.	Your chance of promotion	1 2 3 4 5
11.	The way your organisation is managed	1 2 3 4 5
12.	The attention paid to suggestions you make at work	1 2 3 4 5

1	2	3	4	5
Extremely Dissatisfied	**Dissatisfied**	**Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied**	**Satisfied**	**Extremely Satisfied**

13.	Your hours of work	1	2	3	4	5
14.	The amount of variety in your job	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Your job security	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Now, considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job in general?	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION FOUR

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by <u>marking</u> the appropriate boxes. <u>Kindly answer all the statements</u>. Use the following scales:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

1.	I am given enough time to do what is expected of me on the job	1	2	3	4	5
2.	It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I feel I have to do things hastily and maybe less carefully in order to get everything done	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I often have to work extra hours because of staff shortages	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I influence the things that affect me on my job	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I have input in deciding what tasks or part of tasks I will do	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I have the freedom to do pretty much what I want on my job	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I have the opportunity for independent thought and action on my job	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I work pretty much by myself when performing my tasks	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I receive sufficient feedback from my supervisor on how well I am doing my job	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I have the opportunity to find out how well I am doing on my job	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I have adequate information to know whether I am performing my job well or poorly	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

13.	I have the opportunity to do a number of different things in my job	1	2	3	4	5
14.	There is a considerable amount of variety in my job	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I sometimes have to break a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I receive incompatible (mismatched) requests from two or more people at work	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I receive an assignment without adequate resources or materials to carry it out	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I know what my responsibilities are in the work place	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I feel certain about how much authority I have in my job	1	2	3	4	5
21.	There is clear explanation of what has to be done in my job	1	2	3	4	5
22.	There is a lack of adequate policies and guidelines in my university/Department to help me in my job	1	2	3	4	5
23.	My co-workers are helpful in getting my job done	1	2	3	4	5
24.	My co-workers provide me with important work-related information and advice that make performing my work easier	1	2	3	4	5
25.	My co-workers can be relied upon when things get tough on my job	1	2	3	4	5
26.	The Head of my Department cares about my opinions	1	2	3	4	5
27.	The Head of my Department lets me know how well I am performing my job	1	2	3	4	5
28	When things get tough in my job, I can rely on the Head of my Department for help	1	2	3	4	5
29	My Head of Department is helpful to me in getting my job done	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION FIVE

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by marking the appropriate boxes. Kindly answer all the statements. Use the following scales:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

1.	I will be able to keep my present job as long as I wish	1	2	3	4	5
2.	My job will be there as long as I want it	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I am secure in my job	1	2	3	4	5
4.	The university has done all it can to avoid layoffs (retrenchments)	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Regardless of economic conditions, I will continue to have a job in my university	1	2	3	4	5
6	I have a good chance to get ahead in this university	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I have the opportunity for further advancement in my university	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Promotions are based on how well you do your work in my university	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Being employed in this university for a long time will get you promoted sooner than having good skills and performing well	1	2	3	4	5
10.	The skills and knowledge I have learned on the job in this university would transfer easily to most other organisations	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I have the opportunity to improve my skills in this university	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I have been well-trained by the university for my present job	1	2	3	4	5
13.	The university provides support when employees decide to obtain ongoing training	1	2	3	4	5
14	There are many training opportunities offered by my university to help me to perform my job better	1	2	3	4	5
15	I am paid a great deal of money for performing my job	1	2	3	4	5
16	I get regular salary raises in my university	1	2	3	4	5
17	I make a considerable amount of money on my job	1	2	3	4	5
18	In total, my cash compensation is quite small	1	2	3	4	5
19	I need additional income to make ends meet	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

20.	I am satisfied with my pay relative (compared) to other employees in this university	1	2	3	4	5
21	I am satisfied with my pay relative to other employees outside this organization with similar jobs	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I am rewarded fairly for the amount of effort that I put in my job	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I am rewarded fairly considering the responsibilities I have	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I am not rewarded fairly in view of my experience	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Overall, the rewards I receive in this university are quite fair	1	2	3	4	5
26.	I am satisfied with the way my university provides me with feedback on my performance	1	2	3	4	5
26.	The feedback that I receive agrees with what I have actually achieved in my job	1	2	3	4	5
27.	I think that my university attempts to conduct performance appraisals in the fairest way possible	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Employees in this university have the opportunity to have ‘a say’ in company policies and decisions that affect them	1	2	3	4	5
29.	I believe that university management makes a positive effort to keep staff well-informed	1	2	3	4	5
30.	All important information about the university is communicated to employees	1	2	3	4	5
31.	Employees in this university are encouraged to make suggestions when decisions are being made	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Employees in this university do not share any influences with their superiors in making decisions	1	2	3	4	5
33.	My university is supportive in developing the careers of its employees	1	2	3	4	5
35.	I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career since I joined this university	1	2	3	4	5
36.	I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards achieving my overall career goals	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION SIX

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by <u>marking</u> the appropriate boxes. <u>Kindly answer all the statements</u>. Use the following scales:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

1.	I think a lot about quitting my job	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I am actively searching for an alternative to this university	1	2	3	4	5
3.	As soon as it is possible, I will leave this university	1	2	3	4	5

Please use the space below if you have any comments or recommendations about issues raised in this questionnaire or any other issues that were not addressed here. All comments made will be valuable and useful in the final outcomes of this study. *(Please use additional paper if you wish).*

<u>THANK YOU FOR TAKING TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.</u>

APPENDIX E: QUESTIONNAIRE DEVELOPMENT

Section One

The demographic characteristics are as follows: age, gender (coded as a dummy variable, where Male = 0, Female = 1), marital status (where Unmarried = 0, Married = 1), job tenure, position tenure, education level, occupational groups (where Academic = 0, Administrative = 1) and university sector (where public = 0, private = 1).

Section Two

The second section of the questionnaire examined the extent to which employees were committed to their universities. When I initially began researching employee commitment in Kenyan universities, the conceptualisation of organisational commitment by Porter and colleagues (1974) seemed to have been the most appropriate at the time because Kenyan, and indeed other African researchers, had used these measures in their studies of organisational commitment (e.g. Mulinge, 2000; Walumbwa, Lawler and Avolio, 2007; Okpara, 2007). However, various studies criticised the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) by Porter *et al*., (1974) for being too simplistic as it only measured one dimension of commitment (i.e. attitudinal/affective commitment) and failed to recognise the multiple dimensions of commitment (Reichers, 1985; Mowday, 1998; Benkhoff, 1997). For the purpose of this study, the multidimensional conceptualisation of organisational commitment by Allen and Meyer (1990), which has not been used in Kenya, was selected for this study. The three dimensions of organisational commitment were affective, normative and continuance commitment. Allen and Meyer (1990) developed a 24-item scale to measure the three dimensions of commitment (eight items per dimension) and reported high reliability coefficients as follows: Affective Commitment Scales (α = .87); Continuance Commitment Scales (α = .75) and Normative Commitment Scales (α = .79). Other studies that have used these measures have also found them to be psychometrically sound (Lee, Allen and Meyer, 2001; Allen and Meyer, 1996; Meyer and Allen, 1997). Responses to these statements were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

Affective commitment was measured using six out of the eight items developed by

Allen and Meyer (1990). However, the wordings of some of the items were changed slightly to suit the context of the study. Where relevant the word "organisation" was replaced with "university". For example, "I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it" now reads "I really enjoy telling people what a wonderful place my university is" and "I feel a lot of emotional attachment to my university" instead of "I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation.

Continuance commitment was measured using six items from the eight items by Allen and Meyer (1990). Three items were modified slightly to achieve better clarity. For instance, I deleted the words "as much as a desire" from the item "Right now, staying with my university is a matter of necessity as much as a desire" following advice from Kenyan professors who reviewed the questionnaire during the pilot study. It was felt that the item addressed two different issues – necessity and desire. From their point of view, an employee may remain in the university as a matter of necessity but have no desire to continue working there. Finally, "One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here" now reads "Leaving this organisation would require considerable personal sacrifice because another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here (e.g. salary, pension, promotional opportunities, etc).

Normative commitment was originally measured using six items from Allen and Meyer (1990). However, the reliability of this scale was low during the pilot study, and was therefore changed to the revised scale by Meyer *et al*. (1993). The wordings of some of the items were slightly changed as follows "I owe a great deal to my organisation" now reads "I owe a great deal of loyalty to my university considering all it has done for me (e.g. training, medical assistance, etc)" and "This organisation deserves my loyalty" reads "I believe that this university deserves my loyalty".

Four items measuring *professional commitment* were also included. One item was adopted from Aranya and Wheeler (1986) with the term "organisation" replaced with "profession/line of work". It reads "Deciding to be a member of the profession/line of work that I am in was a definite mistake on my part". Another item was adopted from Meyer *et al*. (1993) while two items were adopted from Blau (2003).

2. Job satisfaction questionnaire

Job satisfaction was measured with items developed by Warr, Cook and Wall (1979). Job satisfaction is the positive affective orientation towards one's job (Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1990). The Job Satisfaction measures consisted of 15 items covering both intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction while one question measured overall satisfaction. The intrinsic satisfaction items related to motivator or growth factors which included; freedom to choose own method of working, recognition, responsibility, chances for promotion among others while measures for extrinsic satisfaction include physical working conditions, immediate boss, fellow workers, job security among others. Although other popular measures for job satisfaction exist, for instance, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Weiss *et al*. (1967), it was found to be unsuitable for this study because some of the items were similar to other constructs which have been used elsewhere in the questionnaire and therefore, likely to confuse the respondents. For example, the item "the chance to work independently and use my own judgement" was similar to one of the items measuring 'job autonomy'. Similarly, "the chance to do different things from time to time" was similar to an item measuring 'task variety'. Previous studies that have used Warr *et al*'s measures have found high reliability coefficients (Patterson, Warr and West, 2004; Rathi and Rastogi, 2008). For each item, respondents are asked to record the extent of their satisfaction or dissatisfaction, with the external and internal features of their job. Responses were made on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (Extremely dissatisfied) to 5 (Extremely satisfied).

3. Job and role-related characteristics

The fourth section of the questionnaire consisted of items measuring *job characteristics* and *role stressors*. These items were meant to examine the extent to which these factors influenced employees' commitment and job satisfaction. The measures for job characteristics were adopted from Sims, Szilagyi and Keller (1976) and other sources as follows: Job autonomy*:* Sims *et al*., (1976) and Wallace (1995); Feedback*:* Sims *et al*., (1976); task variety: Sims *et al*., (1976); Co-worker support was adopted from Mulinge and Mueller (1998) and Susskind, Kacmar and Borchgrevink (2003). Supervisory support was adopted from Rhoades, Eisenberger and Armeli (2001) and Mulinge and Mueller (1998). Role conflict and role ambiguity were adopted from Rizzo *et al*. (1970). Finally, role overload was adopted from

different sources (Beehr, Walsh and Taber, 1976; Reilly, 1982). Responses to these statements were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

4. Human Resource Management practices.

This was the fifth section of the questionnaire which consisted of items related to employees' perceptions of their universities HRM practices. Following a review of the relevant literature, eight HRM practices were identified as important predictors of employees' commitment and job satisfaction, namely; job security, promotional opportunities, training opportunities, pay satisfaction, distributive justice, performance appraisal, participation in decision making and career development. However, unlike job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the literature showed that there were no specific measurements for HRM practices. The constructs which were already in place, for instance, items by Snell and Dean (1992) were not suitable for this study because they were designed to examine HR policy issues from the perspective of the HR Directors or top management where as this study intended to find out perception of existing HR practices from the employees' point of view. The measurement scales were developed from different sources in the literature. Responses to these statements were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

- **Job security**: this measures employees' perception of the extent to which they are assured of the security of their jobs. For example, "The university has done all it can to avoid layoffs" and "I am secure in my job". The items for job security have mainly been adopted from Oldham *et al*. (1986) and Gaertner and Nollen (1989).

- **Promotional opportunities**: this scale consisted of four items which measured employees' perception of the availability of opportunities for advancement and the basis for promotion (i.e. merit or seniority). For example, "I have a good chance to get ahead in this university". These items were adopted from Price and Mueller (1981) and Oldham and Hackman (1981).

- **Training opportunities**: this scale consisted of five items which measured employees' perceptions of the availability of training opportunities; provision of support for training by the university and whether training is organisation-specific.

The items were adopted from Gaertner and Nollen (1989), Wallace (1995) and Lee and Bruvold (2003).

- **Pay satisfaction**: this consisted of five items which were used to measure employees' satisfaction with their pay. Examples of the items are: "I am paid a great deal of money for performing my job" and "I need additional income to make ends meet". These constructs were adopted from Oldham *et al*. (1986).
- **Distributive justice** consisted of six items which measured employees' perception of the fairness of the rewards they received. These items were adopted from Levine (1993) and Price and Mueller (1981).
- **Performance appraisal** items were adopted from Kuvaas (2006). These items concerned overall satisfaction with PA activities and perception of fairness of the appraisal process. For example: "I think that my university attempts to conduct performance appraisals in the fairest way possible".
- **Participation in decision making** items were concerned with extent to which employees were involved in the decision making process. These measures were adopted from various studies (Keller, 1974; Scott-Ladd and Marshall, 2004; Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Thornhill *et al*., 1996).
- **Career development** was measured with three items from Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990).

5. Intentions to turnover

The sixth section of the questionnaire consisted of three items measuring employees' *intentions to turnover*. These items were adopted from Cohen (2005). Responses to these statements were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree

APPENDIX F: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (ACADEMIC AND ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF)

1. What is your perception of the work environment in the university?
2. In your opinion, do you think that the training provided to employees is adequate? In addition, do you think that the selection into training programmes is fairly carried out? (*Why do you think so?)*
3. How is performance appraisals in the university managed? How frequently is it carried out? Do you regard the existing performance management practices as effective? Do you think they are useful? *(Why do you think so?*)
4. In what ways does the university manage the issue of job security? How do you think the employees perceive their level of job security?
5. Can you describe the level of employee commitment to the university? In your opinion, is it based on employee ownership of the university's goals or lack of perceived job alternatives?
6. Management and governance:
   i. Can you describe the leadership provided by senior administration in your university? *(Why do you have that opinion?)* Are you satisfied with the leadership provided? In your opinion, do you think the management of your university supports academic freedom? *(why do you think so?)* Suggest ways in which this can be improved further.
   ii. In your opinion, do you think there is enough consultation in your university from top-down? *(is it satisfactory?)* How can this be improved?
   iii. Do you think that the university management values your opinion? *(Why do you think so?)* What should be done to satisfy you? *(why?)*
7. Pay/remuneration
   i. To what extent are you satisfied with the salary that you are getting? Are you happy with it? *(Why?)* How can this be improved? *(Why do you favour this view?)*
   ii. Considering your current pay, are happy to stay in this university? From an economic point of view, is it necessary for you to engage in paid work elsewhere or private business?

iii. Considering your skills and effort, do you think your present pay is satisfactory and comparable to people of similar qualifications in Kenya? *(Why do you take this position?)* How does this affect your attitude to and interest in your work?

8. Promotion

i. Can you describe the promotion prospects in your university? Are you satisfied with it? *(If not, why?)*

ii. In your opinion, what counts most in the promotion criteria in your university? *(Why do you think so?)* Are you satisfied with the promotion procedures? If not, do you have suggestions on how this can be improved?

iii. Can you describe the opportunities for professional development in your present job? Are your professional needs met to your satisfaction? *(Why do you think so?)*

iv. Can you say that due recognition is given to you for doing a good job in this university? What form does this recognition take? *(Are you satisfied with it?)*

9. An article by Szekeres (2004) has referred to administrative staff as the "invisible workers" in the university. Do you agree? Why do you hold that view? (**Specific to administrative staff only**)

10. Intentions to leave the university

i. Can you see yourself still working in this university in 5 years time?

ii. Are you looking for another job? How desperate are you to leave? (*Why?*)

QUESTIONS SPECIFIC TO ACADEMIC STAFF

1. How many years of university teaching experience do you have?.
   Are you happy with academic work as a career? *(Why?)*

2. Do you find your job satisfying enough? What gives you the most satisfaction? *(Why?)* Do you ever feel like getting out of university teaching? *(Why do you feel like this?)*

3. Describe your status as a don. Does it earn you respect among family, friends and society? *(Does this satisfy you?)* Does it affect your commitment to your job and university?

4. Are you satisfied with your present class size? Is it manageable? If not, how do you cope with it? Is your teaching load manageable or a source of strain to you? (*Suggest ways in which this can be improved*)

5. Is the time allocated for teaching sufficient for you to complete the syllabus?

Does this affect your teaching and attitude to work and overall commitment to the university?

6. In your opinion, do you think the number of students that you teach is proportionate with the resources at your disposal? *(If not, why is that so and what should be done to improve the situation?)*
7. Knowing what you know now, if you had to choose all over again whether to enter academic work, how likely is it that you would do so?
8. How is your relationship with your students? Does it affect your interest in your work? What steps can be taken to improve your work?
9. In your university, how would you evaluate the following:-
    a. Technology for teaching
    b. Research equipments and instruments
    c. Computer facilities
    d. Library facilities

RESEARCH

1. Describe the emphasis put on research and teaching in your university How does this affect your attitude to work? How can this situation be improved? Do you often feel under pressure to publish? Does this reduce the quality of your teaching?
2. Are research funds and facilities available to you in your university? Are they satisfactory and fairly distributed? Has this affected your ability to carry out research? (*How?*)

MANAGERS INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is your position and your main responsibilities in your university?
2. In your opinion, what would you consider as the major constraints and opportunities in the country today that affect the management of the university, and your job?
3. How would you describe the main operating culture in the organization (e.g how decisions are made, levels of control, equal opportunities)? *How is this changing? How should it change?*
4. What is the internal climate of the organization (e.g. employee involvement, motivation, promotion opportunities)? *How is this changing?*
5. As a manager, what motivates you the most?

6. Is reward related to performance? (Please explain about any performance management system if this exists)
7. Please describe the management and leadership styles in the university. Would you describe it as consultative/participatory or top-down?
8. How would you describe inter-ethnic relations in the organization? How is this managed?
9. To what extent are managers and staff in tune with each other concerning different perceptions of the work situations or expectations of each other in the university?

Appendix G: Pearson's Correlation Matrix for role stressors and job characteristics

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Role overload	**1.00**	0.33*	0.20*	-0.15*	-0.22*	-0.21*	-0.18*	-0.17*	-0.16*	-0.09*	0.05ns	-0.15*	-0.34*	-0.32*	0.21*
2	Role conflict	0.33*	**1.00**	0.34*	-0.14*	-0.18*	-0.09*	-0.15*	-0.17*	-0.18*	-0.03	0.13*	-0.12*	-0.27*	-0.27*	0.22*
3	Role Ambiguity	0.20*	0.34*	**1.00**	-0.46*	-0.40*	-0.38*	-0.39*	-0.39*	-0.32*	-0.13*	0.02ns	-0.30*	-0.35*	-0.42*	0.31*
4	Job autonomy	-0.15*	-0.14*	-0.46*	**1.00**	0.45*	0.48*	0.31*	0.37*	0.38*	0.16*	-0.05ns	0.27*	0.42*	0.55*	-0.30*
5	Feedback	-0.22*	-0.18*	-0.40*	0.45*	**1.00**	0.39*	0.34*	0.50*	0.36*	0.19*	-0.04ns	0.31*	0.51*	0.55*	-0.30*
6	Task variety	-0.21*	-0.09*	-0.38*	0.48*	0.39*	**1.00**	0.30*	0.33*	0.36*	0.09*	-0.09*	0.29*	0.42*	0.51*	-0.33*
7	Co-worker support	-0.18*	-0.15*	-0.39*	0.31*	0.34*	0.30*	**1.00**	0.46*	0.25*	0.12*	-0.03ns	0.23*	0.36*	0.39*	-0.27*
8	Supervisory support	-0.17*	-0.17*	-0.39*	0.37*	0.50*	0.33*	0.46*	**1.00**	0.35*	0.19*	-0.03ns	0.33*	0.47*	0.51*	-0.30*
9	Affective Commitment	-0.16*	-0.18*	-0.32*	0.38*	0.36*	0.36*	0.25*	0.35*	**1.00**	0.42*	0.05ns	0.65*	0.54*	0.52*	-0.55*
10	Continuance commitment (high personal sacrifice)	-0.09*	-0.03ns	-0.13*	0.16*	0.19*	0.09*	0.12*	0.19*	0.42*	**1.00**	0.50*	0.47*	0.26*	0.24*	-0.35*
11	Continuance commitment (low job alternative)	0.05ns	0.13*	0.02ns	-0.05ns	-0.04ns	-0.09*	-0.03ns	-0.03ns	0.05ns	0.50*	**1.00**	0.13*	0.01ns	-0.05ns	-0.06ns
12	Normative commitment	-0.15*	-0.12*	-0.30*	0.27*	0.31*	0.29*	0.23*	0.33*	0.65*	0.47*	0.13*	**1.00**	0.45*	0.41*	-0.46*
13	Extrinsic job satisfaction	-0.34*	-0.27*	-0.35*	0.42*	0.51*	0.42*	0.36*	0.47*	0.54*	0.26*	0.01ns	0.45*	**1.00**	0.78*	-0.46*
14	Intrinsic job satisfaction	-0.32*	-0.27*	-0.42*	0.55*	0.55*	0.51*	0.39*	0.51*	0.52*	0.24*	-0.05ns	0.41*	0.78*	**1.00**	-0.46*
15	Turnover intentions	0.21*	0.22*	0.31*	-0.30*	-0.30*	-0.33*	-0.27*	-0.30*	-0.55*	-0.35*	-0.06	-0.46*	-0.46*	-0.46*	**1.00**

Notes: * significant at 0.01 level: ns – not significant

Appendix H: Pearson's Correlation Matrix for human resource management practices

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Job security	**1.00**	0.42*	0.36*	0.31*	0.33*	0.32*	0.29*	0.34*	0.34*	0.25*	0.06ns	0.33*	0.41*	0.38*	-0.30*
2	Promotional opportunities	0.42*	**1.00**	0.55*	0.37*	0.41*	0.48*	0.43*	0.49*	0.39*	0.21*	-0.04ns	0.37*	0.47*	0.52*	-0.34*
3	Training opportunities	0.36*	0.55*	**1.00**	0.36*	0.37*	0.44*	0.43*	0.62*	0.42*	0.18*	-0.03ns	0.35*	0.48*	0.54*	-0.31*
4	Pay satisfaction	0.31*	0.37*	0.36*	**1.00**	0.70*	0.51*	0.53*	0.39*	0.39*	0.25*	0.01ns	0.32*	0.52*	0.47*	-0.32*
5	Distributive justice	0.33*	0.41*	0.37*	0.70*	**1.00**	0.56*	0.56*	0.46*	0.44*	0.33*	0.04ns	0.39*	0.60*	0.52*	-0.38*
6	Performance appraisal	0.32*	0.48*	0.44*	0.51*	0.56*	**1.00**	0.68*	0.46*	0.42*	0.27*	-0.03ns	0.36*	0.56*	0.57*	-0.34*
7	Participation in decision making	0.29*	0.43*	0.43*	0.53*	0.56*	0.68*	**1.00**	0.47*	0.47*	0.25*	-0.03ns	0.38*	0.58*	0.57*	-0.37*
8	Career development	0.34*	0.49*	0.62*	0.39*	0.46*	0.46*	0.47*	**1.00**	0.44*	0.22*	-0.01ns	0.42*	0.48*	0.55*	-0.35*
9	Affective Commitment	0.34*	0.39*	0.42*	0.39*	0.44*	0.42*	0.47*	0.44*	**1.00**	0.42*	0.05ns	0.65*	0.54*	0.52*	-0.55*
10	Continuance commitment (high personal Sacrifice)	0.25*	0.21*	0.18*	0.25*	0.33*	0.27*	0.25*	0.22*	0.42*	**1.00**	0.50*	0.47*	0.26*	0.24*	-0.35*
11	Continuance commitment (low job alternative)	0.06ns	-0.04ns	-0.03ns	0.01ns	0.04ns	-0.03ns	-0.03ns	-0.01ns	0.05ns	0.50*	**1.00**	0.13*	0.01ns	-0.05ns	-0.06ns
12	Normative commitment	0.33*	0.37*	0.35*	0.32*	0.39*	0.36*	0.38*	0.42*	0.65*	0.47*	0.13*	**1.00**	0.45*	0.41*	-0.46*
13	Extrinsic job satisfaction	0.41*	0.47*	0.48*	0.52*	0.60*	0.56*	0.58*	0.48*	0.54*	0.26*	0.01ns	0.45*	**1.00**	0.78*	-0.46*
14	Intrinsic job satisfaction	0.38*	0.52*	0.54*	0.47*	0.52*	0.57*	0.57*	0.55*	0.52*	0.24*	-0.05ns	0.41*	0.78*	**1.00**	-0.46*
15	Turnover intentions	-0.30*	-0.34*	-0.31*	-0.32*	-0.38*	-0.34*	-0.37*	-0.35*	-0.55*	-0.35*	-0.06ns	-0.46*	-0.46*	-0.46*	**1.00**

Notes: * significant at 0.01 level: ns – not significant